DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 123 889 FL 007 652

AUTHOR Conrad, Joseph L., Ed.
TITLE Russian Language Study in 1975: A Status Report. CAL-ERIC/CLL Series on Languages and Linguistics, No. 29.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Arlington, Va.; Modern Language Association of America, New York, N.Y.
PUB DATE Apr 76
NOTE 82p.
AVAILABLE FROM Publications Dept., Modern Language Association, 62 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011 ($3.50)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$4.67 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *College Language Programs; College Majors; Computer Assisted Instruction; Enrollment Trends; Graduate Study; Higher Education; Instructional Materials; Intensive Language Courses; *Language Enrollment; *Language Instruction; Language Programs; *Russian; Secondary Education; Study Abroad; Teacher Education; Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

The papers included in this collection attempt to provide a comprehensive overview of the situation confronting the Russian language-teaching profession and a picture of the status of the teaching of Russian in the U.S. today. The papers are: (1) "Trends in Enrollments in Russian in U.S. Colleges and Public Secondary Schools," by Richard I. Brod (trends in foreign language enrollments, 1960-72; trends in Russian enrollments; and college Russian enrollments, 1974-75); (2) "The Teaching of Russian in American Secondary Schools, 1974-75," by Gerard L. Ervin (the national enrollment picture; a close-up of Ohio, 1974-75--teachers, enrollment, materials and teacher workshops; and some possible courses of action toward reversing the trend); (3) "Russian Instruction: First- and Second-Year College Level," by Donald K. Jarvis (professional support and preparation; widely used techniques--beginning texts and second-year texts; and innovative programs and techniques--CAI-CBI, speech delay, individualized instruction, decoding courses, Lipson technique); (4) "Intensive Russian Language Programs," by Robert Lager; (5) "Computer-Assisted Instruction in Russian," by George Kalbouss; (6) "Junior-, Senior-, and Graduate-Level Programs, Including Russian Literature," by Maurice I. Levin (advanced undergraduate programs--small college major, university major; graduate programs; and proficiency); and (7) "Russian Language Programs in the USSR for American Students," by Joseph L. Conrad. A summary and conclusions are also provided. (Author/RM)

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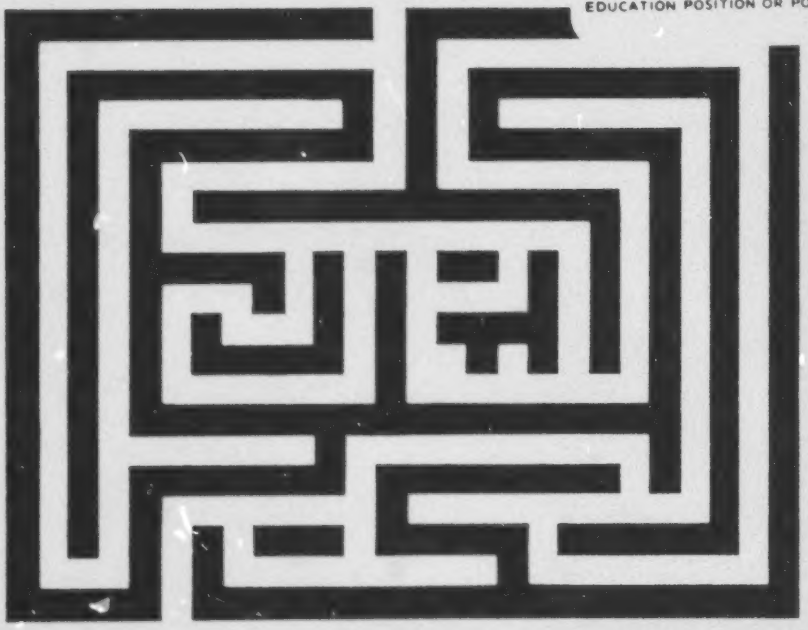

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Modern Language Association of America
and
ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics

RUSSIAN LANGUAGE STUDY IN 1975:

A STATUS REPORT

Joseph L. Conrad, Editor
University of Kansas

CAL•ERIC/CLL Series on Languages and Linguistics
Number 29

Modern Language Association of America
62 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10011

and

ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics
Center for Applied Linguistics
1611 North Kent Street
Arlington, Virginia 22209

April 1976

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PREFACE

Prior to the launching of the first sputnik (1957), Russian language instruction was an insignificant element in American foreign language education. Now, almost twenty years later, Russian is taught in many secondary schools and commonly offered in colleges and universities. Despite its vastly improved position, Russian, along with other modern foreign languages, finds its place in the curriculum threatened.

During the euphoric decade of the sixties, Russian enrollments rose dramatically at all levels of instruction. Curriculum development in Russian flourished, providing a multitude of basic texts and supplementary materials, and various teaching alternatives were explored. In the mid-seventies, the Russian language-teaching profession, having benefited immensely from the experience of the recent past, confronts some very hard realities. The contributions included in the present publication attempt to provide a comprehensive overview of these realities and a picture of the status of the teaching of Russian in the U.S. today. The work has been commissioned by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, located at the Center for Applied Linguistics.

J.L.C.

TRENDS IN ENROLLMENTS IN RUSSIAN IN U.S. COLLEGES AND PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Richard I. Brod, Modern Language Association of America

Trends in Foreign Language Enrollments, 1960-74

For foreign languages, as for other traditional fields of study, the decade of the 1960s represented a golden age of enrollments, expansion, and employment for the teaching profession. As overall student enrollments rose--more rapidly in the first half of the decade, more slowly in the second--language enrollments also climbed, demonstrating the continuing importance of language study within the traditional liberal arts curriculum. In 1960, modern language enrollments in secondary schools were equal to 21.7 percent of total enrollment; by 1968 the percentage had risen to 27.7 (only to drop back again by 1970 to 26.4).[1] At the college level, the ratio peaked earlier, rising from 17.0 percent in 1960 to 17.8 percent in 1963 (it then dropped back to 15.5 percent in 1968 and fell to 9.9 percent by 1974).[2] Given the continuing expansion of the student population, the declining ratios were not immediately accompanied by losses in absolute enrollment figures, but those losses appeared eventually: at the college level, a decline of 0.5 percent between 1968 and 1970, and 9.2 percent between 1970 and 1972; in the schools, a slight but ominous drop of 0.1 percent between 1968 and 1970.[3]

In retrospect, the declining ratios appear to have been early warnings of the losses that ultimately occurred as a result of a shrinkage of the total enrollment base and a gradual dislodging of language study from its entrenched (and privileged) position in the liberal arts curriculum. At least three trends seem to have played a role in this development: (1) a dissipation of the enthusiasm for language study that had been inspired by the first sputnik (1957), the passage of the National Defense Education Act (1958), and other external events; (2) a contraction of the liberal arts-B.A. segment of higher education, accompanied by expansion of the professional-vocational segment (particularly noticeable in the growth charts of the junior and community colleges); and (3) a rapidly spreading trend toward elimination or reduction of foreign language requirements for the B.A. degree. The shift in requirements, unquestionably the most significant factor in the decline of language enrollments, has

been amply documented by MLA surveys taken in 1970-71 and again in 1974-75.[4] Like the enrollments, the fixed language requirement had reached a peak in the mid-1960s, when fully 88.9 percent of B.A.-granting institutions reported having an all-college language requirement for the B.A. degree. By 1970-71, the percentage had dropped to 76.7, by 1974-75, to 54.0.[5] Although the MLA was able to show, on the basis of responses to its 1970-71 questionnaire, that erosion of language requirements was part of a general pattern of student and faculty resistance to requirements in general and not to language study per se, the trend continued and exerted an inevitable "ripple effect" upon enrollments in four-year colleges, two-year colleges, and secondary schools.

The movement away from requirements also helps to explain the striking differences in enrollment trends among the various languages. During the two-year period 1968-70, Spanish enrollments at the high school level rose 6.6 percent, while those in French fell by 7.3 percent, German by 3.0 percent, and Russian by 17.1 percent. Latin, in a class by itself, dropped 28.7 percent between 1968 and 1970.[6] Similarly, at the college level, while Spanish and Italian enrollments continued to rise between 1968 and 1970 (and Spanish thereby overtook French to become the leading language taught in colleges), substantial losses were recorded for French (7.4 percent), German (5.3 percent), Russian (11.1 percent), and Latin (21.1 percent). Not until the college enrollment survey of 1972 did Spanish begin to show a decline (6.3 percent between 1970 and 1972), while enrollments continued to fall at an even more rapid rate in French (18.4 percent), German (12.6 percent) and Latin (11.6 percent). Only Russian, for reasons we shall explore below, managed to "hold its own" between 1970 and 1972 with an increase of 0.6 percent.[7]

It is clearly more than coincidence that the sudden and steep loss of enrollments in French, German, and Latin should have occurred during the years when language requirements for the B.A. degree began to wither away in nearly half the nation's colleges. The conclusion seems inescapable that the study of these three traditional languages was in fact closely associated with the college requirement in the minds of students and their advisors. If this is true, then the survival of Spanish (and to a lesser extent, of Russian) suggests that that language had more "going for it," and that students could be persuaded to study it on grounds other than coercion. The reasons behind student preferences are often difficult to understand, but the relative success of Spanish would appear to be based upon its persistent reputation as an easy language to learn, upon the growing presence of Spanish-speaking populations in U.S. cities, and upon an increasing awareness of its political and commercial usefulness.

The idea that "usefulness" should be a prime motivation for language study is hardly new in the history of American education. It is, in fact, one of the premises underlying the National Defense Education

Act and ultimately the best explanation for the steady growth of instruction in the so-called "exotic" or uncommonly taught languages during the 1960s. Although in many ways Russian belongs in this category--particularly because of its involvement in area studies programs--the MLA's surveys have always tabulated Russian statistics separately and have reserved the category "less commonly taught" for all languages other than French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, Latin, and Ancient Greek. Collectively, this group of languages has grown faster than any other: from 13,425 enrollments in 1960 to 64,132 in 1974, an increase of 377 percent. The leading languages in the group are Hebrew (22,371 enrollments in 1974), Chinese (10,662), Japanese (9,604), Portuguese (5,073) and Arabic (2,034).[8] In addition to their political and commercial importance, another obvious factor in the growth of these languages has been ethnic identification, a motivation that also contributes to the generally healthy state of enrollments in Italian. The strength of this factor is also evident from the list of institutions where these languages are taught--a list that includes on the one hand, the large universities that house academic centers for area studies, and, on the other hand, urban colleges, both two-year and four-year, that have a strong identification with local ethnic populations. By contrast, most of the small liberal arts colleges, second-level state colleges, and teacher-training institutions normally cannot afford to make these peripheral languages available to their students, and, as a rule, their language offerings are limited to the most popular choices.

Trends in Russian Enrollments

Interest in Russian was negligible in American education until after the Second World War and grew only slowly during the 1950s. Enrollments in 1958, according to MLA surveys, were only about 17,000 at the college level and 4,055 in the public secondary schools. At the school level, Russian grew rapidly during the 1960s--faster than any other language--and reached a peak of 26,716 enrollments in 1965, an increase of 559 percent in a seven-year period. (By contrast, total school enrollments rose from 7.9 million to 11.6 during this period--an increase of 47 percent--and enrollments in all modern foreign languages grew from 1.3 million to 3.1, or 137 percent.) After 1965, Russian secondary school enrollments dropped again, falling by 24.5 percent to 20,162 in the MLA's 1970 survey. Surprisingly, the growth of Russian at the college level during the 1960s was relatively slow, amounting to 33.1 percent between 1960 and 1968 (from 30,570 enrollments to 40,696), and thus not nearly as impressive as the growth achieved by French (69.6 percent) and German (48 percent) during the same period, and by Spanish (117.7 percent) and Italian (207.3 percent!) during the ten-year period that ended with the MLA's 1970 survey.[9] After 1968, the enrollment pattern for Russian at the college level was eccentric: between 1968 and 1970 it fell 11.1 percent--more than any other modern language--and between 1970

and 1972 it was the only one of the commonly taught languages whose enrollments did not decrease, but instead held steady with a very slight (0.6 percent) increase. Then, between 1972 and 1974, it fell back by 10.7 percent to 32,522.

In seeking explanations for this erratic pattern of enrollments, one arrives at one or more general hypotheses. The first of these is that Russian was probably not as closely tied to, or as dependent upon, the college language requirement as were French and German and therefore did not decline as severely as did the other two languages. This hypothesis presupposes, among other things, that students seeking only to fulfill the language requirement, and thus not highly motivated to study a language, would be more likely to elect the traditional French or German and less likely to choose a more exotic option such as Russian. Conversely, those students electing Russian could be presumed to be more highly motivated than students choosing one of the other languages merely to fulfill a requirement.

For many Russian students, undoubtedly, the motivation is cultural: that is, they have been attracted to the language by the glimpses they have had of it in literature in translation, in film, music, art, or ballet, or in reading about Russian history, culture, politics, or society. In a few cases, the motivation may be vocational--as part of training for a research career in chemistry or biology, for example. There is also presumably a "hard core" of students who have an ethnic identification with Russian, and a certain number who are descendants of other Slavic nations and extend their ethnic interest to Russian. Yet, all of these factors taken together probably do not add up to a very large body of enrollments, and the general reputation of Russian as a difficult language--whether justified or not--is unlikely to help it widen its appeal.

A second hypothesis proposed to explain the relative stability of Russian enrollments in the late 1960s is one that would connect it with external political events. In this context, it does not seem far-fetched to link the status of Russian to the climate of political and commercial rapport between the U.S. and the USSR that existed during 1972 and became particularly prominent during President Nixon's visit to the Soviet Union in the spring of that year. The problem with such an external stimulus, of course, is that its effects are not necessarily sustained: witness the results of the MLA's 1974 survey showing that Russian enrollments have dropped again (though still not as severely as those in French and German).[10] Yet, connections between external events and language enrollments are not implausible. One assumes, for example, that there was such a connection between the "Six-Day War" and the remarkable increase in Hebrew enrollments; between the Arab oil embargo and a growing interest in the study of Arabic; and between Nixon's visit to Peking and the 61 percent increase in Chinese enrollments between fall 1970 and fall 1972. Seen in this context, the launching of the first Soviet sputnik in 1957 would appear to be one of a chain of such

influential events. On the other hand, a long-range trend such as the expansion of U.S. involvement in Latin America undoubtedly also has had influence upon language enrollments, but its influence cannot be pinpointed to any single given year.

Obviously, it is not enough merely to explain the relative stability of Russian in schools and colleges in the 1960s; one is impelled also to seek explanations for the limits on its growth, and, by implication, ways in which its growth might be stimulated. Several factors emerge, including once again the reputation of Russian as a difficult language to learn. Recognizing, as one must, that any effort to increase enrollments in Russian in the American educational system of the 1970s must work along the lines of mass appeal, it is clear that such a reputation, whether deserved or not, is a factor to be reckoned with. In its most superficial form, the negative reputation may be based on nothing more than the supposed obstacle of the Cyrillic alphabet. It may, however, be grounded upon the very real difficulties faced by students who have never before encountered a highly inflected language, or it may ultimately be based upon the problem of learning a language with a relatively low percentage of vocabulary cognate with English. In short, for some students the reputation is a reality, and those features of Russian that interest or challenge the superior student will not necessarily appeal to the rank and file.

Another factor to be considered in assessing the status of Russian is the perennial problem of a lack of opportunity for study abroad. Despite expansion of opportunities in recent years, distance, cost of travel, and lack of space are still serious obstacles to advanced study and to the training of teachers. Surprisingly enough, a lack of teachers is also a factor limiting the growth of Russian, despite a general increase in unemployment in the language-teaching profession. Although there are no reliable data on the number of active and prospective teachers of Russian available in the United States, the unemployment rate apparently is not yet high.[11] In any case, the pool of available teachers, including those currently in training, would not permit an unlimited expansion of enrollments, even if other circumstances were suddenly to move enrollments in an upward direction.

A fourth limiting factor is one that might be called "political": it is the generally marginal status of Russian in schools and colleges--marginal vis-à-vis other languages and other fields of study. Russian is marginal in the sense that its teaching staff in the smaller and middle-sized institutions may consist of two or three persons, or in some cases only one person, and in a few cases only a fraction of a person, i.e., a part-time instructor or a faculty member who teaches another subject--usually another language--in addition to Russian. In the secondary schools, of course, this "fractional" pattern is the norm, since districts can rarely afford to hire teachers who do not offer a useful

teaching minor. Recent studies have shown that in certain typical state systems, fewer than half the regular teachers of the commonly taught languages (Spanish, French, German) have a full teaching assignment in their major language; instead, they have assignments in which language study may be combined with one or more other subjects, ranging from English or social studies to physical education.[12] The pattern is not infrequent in college language programs, although normally the minor subject will be another foreign language or English. Even when Russian teachers are able to handle other subjects, the language may still have only a marginal labor pool. As a result, no back-up teachers may be available to fill vacancies when they occur. In such cases, a superintendent may be unwilling to introduce Russian into the curriculum without assurance that its continuity can be maintained.

Even in the college context, the status of Russian may be marginal. Among other problems, it normally lacks a "home base" of its own. Only in larger, more prestigious universities with graduate programs--and occasionally in some of the older, traditional colleges--does one find full-scale departments of Russian or Slavic languages. According to an analysis undertaken by the MLA in 1975, of 596 U.S. institutions that offer Russian, only 76 locate the program in a department of Russian or Slavic languages. Another 52 maintain "combination" departments, e.g., German and Russian, French and Russian, etc., and the remaining 468 house their programs in departments with collective names such as Modern Languages, Foreign Languages, Humanities, and the like. In many cases, the faculty of such collective departments are able to make good use of the advantages afforded by the arrangement: comparative or multinational courses, multilingual film series and social activities for students, political "clout" in dealing with the dean or with other departments. For the languages with fewer representatives, however, there is always a danger of being overlooked by the administration or by the chairman, who in most cases is himself a representative of one of the larger language groups. Should enrollments in a less commonly taught language decline even further, its position will naturally become more and more marginal, until the idea of dropping it from the curriculum may become less and less unthinkable, and a spirit of enlightened cannibalism may dictate that the survival of the body will require the sacrifice of its weakest limb.

This is not to suggest that Russian could afford, or necessarily even profit by, independent departmental status. The advantages and disadvantages of independent versus collective departments will vary from campus to campus and will depend very much on the personalities involved. In any case, the Russian staff very often will not even be consulted about matters of organization. For many members of the Russian-teaching profession, therefore, the question of departmental organization is simply a "given," and not a matter of choice.

College Russian Enrollments, 1974-75

Tables 1, 2, and 3 below are based on returns received in the MLA's fall 1974 survey of college level foreign language enrollments. Table 1 shows the 1974 figures for Russian compared with the results of the last previous survey, taken in 1972. Table 2 shows gains or losses in Russian enrollments between 1972 and 1974 for a representative group of 29 institutions. Table 3, taken directly from the MLA's 1974 report, compares trends in Russian enrollments between 1960 and 1974 with those in French, German, Italian, and Spanish.

Table 4 represents an attempt to provide an index of changes in the supply of teachers of Russian since 1958. The table presents data on earned degrees, derived from U.S. Office of Education reports that are not, at this writing, available beyond the academic year 1971-72. The table compares B.A.'s, M.A.'s, and Ph.D.'s granted in all modern foreign languages in the four largest language fields for four selected years.[13] The lower portion of the table presents the growth factor, by degree and by language, over the ten-year period from 1958-59 to 1968-69 and the thirteen-year period from 1958-59 to 1971-72. The table shows that compared with the overall growth factors for modern foreign languages, Russian production of B.A.'s was significantly above average; the number of M.A.'s was near average in 1969, but well below average in 1972; and the production of Ph.D.'s was far below average. In analyzing the data, the assumption is made that in the foreign language field, M.A. and Ph.D. production figures provide a rough index of changes in teacher supply; B.A. production, however, is more likely to be an index of demand than of supply, and can be interpreted in the light of available enrollment data. Although no detailed conclusions can be drawn from Table 4, it would appear that teacher supply in Russian increased by a smaller factor than that in other languages, especially German. Given the relatively stable enrollment in Russian at the college level, this suggests that until 1972 at least, supply and demand for college teachers of Russian were more nearly in balance than in other languages.

TABLE 1

ENROLLMENTS IN RUSSIAN, FALL 1972 AND FALL 1974

	Two-Year Colleges	Four-Year Institutions			Total Registrations
		Undergraduate	Graduate	Total	
1972	1,867	32,619	1,923	34,542	36,409
1974	1,723	29,018	1,781	30,799	32,522
% change	-7.7	-11.0	-7.4	-10.8	-10.7

TABLE 2

REPRESENTATIVE INSTITUTIONS WITH SIGNIFICANT GAINS OR LOSSES IN RUSSIAN ENROLLMENTS, 1972-74 (MLA SURVEY)

Institution	1972	1974
Los Angeles City College	136	80
University of California at Santa Barbara	149	67
Colorado State University	59	90
Northwestern University	238	95
Purdue University (Lafayette)	175	240
Morningside College (Iowa)	0	22
Iowa State University	124	66
University of Kansas	189	277
Morgan State College (Maryland)	93	43
Boston College	102	213
University of Michigan	351	428
St. Olaf College (Minnesota)	91	39
University of Minnesota at Minneapolis	403	297
Dartmouth College	123	85
Rutgers University, Newark	106	69
University of New Mexico	87	145
SUNY at Binghamton	105	62
Syracuse University	208	102
Colgate University	36	83
Duke University	162	129
University of Cincinnati	99	71
University of Oregon	114	210
Albright College (Pennsylvania)	47	9
East Texas State University	40	2
Brigham Young University	391	147
George Mason College (Virginia)	23	59
Washington State University	69	85
University of Washington	368	317
Lawrence University (Wisconsin)	111	69

TABLE 3

REGISTRATION TRENDS IN THE FIVE LEADING MODERN LANGUAGES, 1960-74
(All Institutions)

	1960	1968	1970	1972	1974
French	228,813	388,096	359,313	293,084	253,137
German	146,110	216,263	202,569	177,062	152,139
Italian	11,142	30,359	34,244	33,312	32,996
Russian	30,570	40,696	36,189	36,409	32,522
Spanish	178,689	364,870	389,150	364,531	362,151
Total	595,324	1,040,284	1,021,465	904,398	832,945

	Index of Growth (1960=100)				Percentage Change between Surveys					
	1968	1970	1972	1974	1960-65	1965-68	1968-70	1970-72	1972-74	1968-74
French	169.6	157.0	128.1	110.6	62.4	4.4	-7.4	-18.4	-13.6	-34.8
German	148.0	138.6	121.2	104.1	46.4	1.1	-6.3	-12.8	-14.1	-29.6
Italian	272.5	307.3	299.0	296.1	105.7	32.5	12.8	-2.7	-0.9	8.7
Russian	133.1	118.4	119.1	106.4	10.3	20.7	-11.1	0.6	-10.7	-20.1
Spanish	204.2	217.7	204.0	202.7	73.7	17.6	6.7	-6.3	-0.7	-0.7
Total	174.7	171.6	151.9	139.9	59.9	9.2	-1.8	-11.5	-7.9	-19.9

TABLE 4

EARNED DEGREES IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES: 1958-59, 1963-64, 1968-69, AND 1971-72, WITH GROWTH FACTORS FOR THE PERIODS 1958-69 AND 1958-72

	Degrees Granted				Growth Factor	
	1958-59	1963-64	1968-69	1971-72	1958-59 to 1968-69	1958-59 to 1971-72
B.A.						
Modern Langs.	3,921	11,250	20,531	18,914	5.2	4.8
French	1,662	4,788	7,910	6,856	4.8	4.1
German	501	1,591	2,718	2,477	5.4	4.9
Russian	94	500	752	658	8.0	7.0
Spanish	1,444	3,830	7,243	7,323	5.0	5.1
M.A.						
Modern Langs.	760	1,917	4,335	4,549	5.7	6.0
French	280	590	1,399	1,421	5.0	5.1
German	97	344	762	608	7.9	6.3
Russian	38	140	222	150	5.8	3.9
Spanish	255	566	1,216	1,445	4.8	5.7
Ph.D.						
Modern Langs.	170	277	581	819	3.4	4.8
French	58	76	134	193	2.3	3.3
German	24	75	126	167	5.2	7.0
Russian	8	14	16	15	2.0	1.9
Spanish	40	47	120	152	3.0	3.8

NOTES

1. "Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1970," Association of Departments of Foreign Languages Bulletin 4 (December 1972): 20-21. Excerpted from C. Edward Scebold, Survey of Offerings and Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1970 (New York: Modern Language Association, 1973). ERIC ED 081 262.

2. Richard I. Brod, "Foreign Language Enrollments in U.S. Colleges--Fall 1974," ADFL Bulletin 7 (November 1975): 39.

3. For the 1970 and 1972 college surveys, see the reports by Brod in ADFL Bulletin 3 (December 1971): 46-50 and ADFL Bulletin 5 (September 1973): 54-60, respectively.

4. Richard I. Brod and Jeffrey H. Meyerson, "The Foreign Language Requirement--Report on the 1974-75 Survey." ADFL Bulletin 7 (September 1975): 43-46.

5. During the same period the prevalence of entrance requirements in foreign languages dropped from 33.6 percent (1965-66) to 27.4 percent (1970-71) to 18.6 percent (1974-75) of B.A.-granting institutions in the U.S.

6. Percentages are calculated from the figures listed in the 1970 survey report (see note 1 above).

7. See Table 2 in the 1970 and 1972 college surveys (see note 3 above).

8. See Table 4 in the 1974 college survey.

9. See Table 5 in the 1972 college survey.

10. See Table 3 in this chapter.

11. See Table 4 in this chapter.

12. See Maurice W. Conner, "Foreign Language Teaching Combinations," and William Harvey, "Teaching-Field Combinations in Texas Public Schools," both in ADFL Bulletin 6 (March 1975): 29-35.

13. The source for all figures in Table 4 is an annual publication of the U.S. Office of Education, Earned Degrees Conferred (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office). The reports are summarized annually in A Fact Book on Higher Education, Fourth Issue (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education); the 1974 issue recapitulates data going back to 1947-48.

THE TEACHING OF RUSSIAN IN AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1974-75

Gerard L. Ervin, The Ohio State University

Introduction: The National Enrollment Picture

This report is concerned with the status of Russian language teaching in American schools at the secondary level, which will include grades 7-12 unless otherwise specified. After presenting national enrollment statistics, we shall take a close look at a single state, Ohio, with the hope that generalizations made about Ohio's programs may shed some light on enrollments, materials, and problems relating to secondary school Russian programs elsewhere in the United States. Some attempts will be made to define the causes for the continuing decrease in Russian enrollments, and suggestions will be offered for reversing this trend.

For anyone interested in the study of Russian in the United States, there is probably no better place to start than with Albert Parry's America Learns Russian.[1] In some 200 well-documented pages, Parry takes the reader through as many years, from the earliest records of the teaching of Russian on the North American continent (the 1740s in the Aleutian Islands and Alaska) to the mid-1960s. One comes away from the book with the observation that, with the exception of a small corps of devotees, most Americans who have studied Russian have done so for purely pragmatic reasons: economic, military, or political.

In the 1955-56 academic year, only nine American secondary schools offered Russian. With the launching of the first sputnik in 1957, however, America introduced Russian into her high schools on a large scale. Figures in Table 1, compiled from the U.S. Office of Education, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, and the Modern Language Association of America, record the pattern of growth in Russian from 1958 to 1970 (for comparative purposes, figures in other foreign languages and for total public secondary school enrollment are shown as well).

I wish to express my thanks to the Center for Slavic and East European Studies at The Ohio State University for its financial support of this report and to the Russian teachers in Ohio, the many state foreign language supervisors, and other Russian teachers across the country who responded to requests for information.

TABLE 1. Summary of public high school enrollments in foreign languages with percentages of total public secondary school (PSS) enrollment, grades 9–12: 1890–1968.*

Year	PSS enrollment	MFL enrollment*	% of MFL's in PSS enrollment	Spanish enrollment	% of Spanish in PSS enrollment	French enrollment	% of French in PSS enrollment
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1890	202,963	33,089	16.3	–	–	11,772	5.8
1895	350,099	62,685	17.9	–	–	22,757	6.5
1900	519,251	114,765	22.1	–	–	40,503	7.8
1905	679,702	199,153	29.3	–	–	61,852	9.1
1910	915,061	313,890	34.3	6,406	.7	90,591	9.9
1915	1,328,984	477,110	35.9	35,882	2.7	116,957	8.8
1922	2,230,000	611,025	27.4	252,000	11.3	345,650	15.5
1928	3,354,473	845,338	25.2	315,329	9.4	469,626	14.0
1934	5,620,626	1,096,022	19.5	348,479	6.2	612,648	10.9
1948	5,399,452	740,800	13.7	442,755	8.2	253,781	4.7
1958	7,897,232	1,295,944	16.4	691,024	8.8	479,769	6.1
1959	8,155,573	1,564,883	19.2	802,266	9.8	603,733	7.4
1960	8,649,495	1,867,358	21.7	933,409	10.8	744,404	8.6
1961	9,246,925	2,192,207	23.7	1,054,730	11.4	908,082	9.8
1962	9,891,185	2,391,206	24.2	1,137,757	11.5	996,771	10.1
1963	10,750,081	2,781,737	25.9	1,336,105	12.4	1,130,987	10.5
1964	11,075,343	2,898,665	26.2	1,362,831	12.3	1,194,991	10.8
1965	11,611,197	3,067,613	26.4	1,426,822	12.3	1,251,373	10.8
1968	12,721,352	3,518,413	27.7	1,698,034	13.3	1,328,100	10.4
1970	13,301,883	3,514,053	26.4	1,810,775	13.6	1,230,686	9.3

*All foreign language enrollments from 1890 through 1948 are estimated from percentages of the languages in the total high school enrollments given by William R. Parker, *The National Interest and Foreign Languages* (U.S. National Commission for the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1957, pp. 52–53. The statistics from 1958 to 1965 are all taken from MLA reports.

German enrollment	% of German in PSS enrollment	Russian enrollment	% of Russian in PSS enrollment	Italian enrollment	% of Italian in PSS enrollment	Latin enrollment	% of Latin in PSS enrollment
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
21,311	10.5	–	–	–	–	70,429	34.7
39,911	11.4	–	–	–	–	153,693	43.9
74,252	14.3	–	–	–	–	262,752	50.6
137,299	20.2	–	–	–	–	341,215	50.2
216,869	23.7	–	–	–	–	448,383	49.0
324,272	24.4	–	–	–	–	495,711	37.3
13,385	.6	–	–	–	–	614,250	27.5
60,381	1.8	–	–	–	–	737,984	22.0
134,897	2.4	–	–	–	–	899,300	16.0
43,195	.8	–	–	–	–	421,174	7.8
93,054	1.2	4,055	1	22,133	.3	617,500	7.8
123,581	1.5	7,313	1	21,118	.3	639,776	7.8
150,764	1.7	9,722	1	20,026	.2	654,670	7.6
184,820	2.0	13,224	1	22,277	.2	695,297	7.5
211,676	2.1	15,832	.2	21,654	.2	702,135	7.1
260,488	2.4	21,552	.2	23,250	.2	680,234	6.3
285,613	2.6	20,485	.2	24,735	.2	590,047	5.3
328,028	2.8	26,716	.2	25,233	.2	591,445	5.1
423,196	3.3	24,318	.2	26,920	.2	371,977	2.9
410,535	3.1	20,162	.1	27,321	.2	265,293	2.0

*The totals of the modern foreign languages (columns 5, 7, 9, 11) do not equal the MFL enrollment totals in column 3, since the column 3 figures include a small number of enrollments for "Other Languages."

(Reprinted from the ADFL Bulletin 5 (December 1972): 21)

For the purposes of this study, it is the Russian enrollment figures of the last decade which are the most pertinent. In the following table, the downward trend during the first half of this period is particularly clear.

TABLE 2

CHANGING RUSSIAN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENTS, 1965-70

Grade Levels	1965	1968	1970	Percentage Change 1965-68	1968-70	1965-70
7-8	5,311	4,289	3,176	-19.3	-25.9	-40.2
9-12	26,716	24,318	20,162	- 8.9	-17.1	-24.5
Total 7-12	32,027	28,607	23,338	-10.7	-18.4	-27.1
PSS (9-12) enrollment	11,611,197	12,721,352	13,301,883	9.6	4.6	14.6

[Sources: MLA; ADFL Bulletin][2,3]

It takes only a cursory glance at these two tables to see that, while school enrollments climbed steadily from 1965-70, Russian language enrollments during the same period dropped drastically.

It is unfortunate, but perhaps a further indication of the declining national interest in foreign languages, that since 1970 there have been no detailed nationwide studies of secondary school language enrollments (although as this chapter goes to press, the Modern Language Association has completed about two-thirds of the work on its 1974-75 secondary school enrollment survey, funded by the U.S. Office of Education). In lieu of detailed figures, a survey I conducted specifically for this study might prove enlightening.

Fifty-five questionnaires were mailed to the foreign language coordinator of each state and territory of the U.S.; thirty-nine (71 percent) were returned. Two questions related to enrollments: (1) Approximately how many secondary (7-12) schools in your state offer Russian? (2) In general terms, have Russian enrollments in your state increased, decreased, or remained about the same over the last two or three years? The results of this survey are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3

SECONDARY RUSSIAN PROGRAMS BY STATE

State or Territory	Number of Schools Offering Russian	Enrollment Trends over Last 2-3 Years
Alabama	0	N/A
Alaska	0	N/A
Arizona	6	=
Arkansas	0	N/A
California	28	-
Canal Zone	0	N/A
Connecticut	22	=
Delaware	3	-
Georgia	7	+
Hawaii	1 (pilot)	N/A
Idaho	?	-
Illinois	50	-
Indiana	12	-
Iowa	5+	=
Kansas	11	+
Kentucky	3	-
Louisiana	7	+
Maryland	10	+
Missouri	6	+
Montana	2	=
Nebraska	0	-
Nevada	1	-
New Jersey	54	=
New York	55	-
North Dakota	0	N/A
Ohio	35	-
Oklahoma	2	-
Pennsylvania	25	-
Puerto Rico	0	N/A
Rhode Island	2? (unsure)	?
South Carolina	1	=
Tennessee	4	=
Texas	10	-
Vermont	6 or 7	+
Virginia	21	=
Washington	31	=
West Virginia	3	=
Wisconsin	8	-
Wyoming	0	-

[In addition to the above, the National Association of Independent Schools' Russian survey, conducted in the fall of 1974, lists 52 schools with Russian programs.][4]

From these data, it may be observed that of the thirty-nine states responding, eight (20 percent) report no Russian study at all in their secondary schools (it would seem fair to assume that the group of non-responding states would reflect a similar, or perhaps an even higher, percentage without Russian); six (15 percent) report that enrollments have been increasing; fifteen (38 percent) report that Russian enrollments have been decreasing; and ten (26 percent) report relatively stable Russian enrollments.

Let us now turn to Ohio, where I have been in a position to do a more detailed study of the Russian programs, the teachers of these programs, the materials they use, and the concerns that they express.

A Close-Up of One State: Ohio, 1974-75

A questionnaire was sent to all the teachers actively engaged in teaching one or more Russian classes in Ohio secondary schools. The survey included teachers in public, private, and parochial schools. Of the thirty-three questionnaires sent out, twenty-eight (84 percent) were returned. From the responses of these teachers, the following information has been compiled.

Teachers

Twenty-four of the twenty-eight (86 percent) are non-native speakers of Russian. Eight (28 percent) report that they have attended an NDEA or other intensive Russian program in the United States for a summer session or longer, and twelve (42 percent) report that they have been to the USSR. The mean number of years spent teaching at their present school is 8.5 (from a low of one year to a high of seventeen years; median = 9.0 years); the mean number of years teaching Russian at their present school is 5.8 (low - 1; high - 14; median = 5.0); the mean number of years of Russian-teaching experience is 7.2 (low - 1; high - 20; median = 6.5).

Enrollments

Five of the twenty-eight teachers (17 percent) report that their enrollments have been rising over the last two or three years, fifteen (53 percent) report that their enrollments have been going down, and eight (28 percent) report that their enrollments during this period have remained about the same. Their reports on approximate enrollments in Russian I over the last three years bear out the nationwide downward trend seen earlier:

	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75
Average Russian I Enrollment per Teacher	23.7	19.1	16.9

The teachers identified a number of factors that affected their enrollments. Negative factors (followed by the number of teachers mentioning each factor) included the difficulty of the language (8); scheduling conflicts [from mini-courses, in particular] (5); a lack of support from counselors, who suggest that the language is "too hard" (4); a lack of support, e.g., financial, from the administration (3); the availability of a "head start" in other foreign languages, but not in Russian, at the junior-high level (2); the general trend away from foreign languages (2); poor texts (1); a heavy teaching load, with too much preparation (1); a large Black population which does not identify with Russian (1); indifference from the local college or university (1).

Among the factors which influence their Russian enrollments positively, respondents reported the teacher's own recruitment efforts (2); support from the principal and administrators (2); hard work and commitment on the part of the teacher (1); support from counselors (1); cooperation from other foreign language teachers in suggesting Russian to students as an additional foreign language (1); a large population of Slavic background which can identify with Russian (1).

Finally, a map depicting the approximate locations of the Russian language programs in Ohio shows that they are concentrated in large metropolitan areas, with a few isolated, though often quite strong, programs in other areas of the state (see Figure 1). Such a pattern of concentration may reflect the presence of a university Slavic department with a strong program of support for secondary schools, the presence of a large population of Slavic descent in the area, a large school system which can afford to support "specialized" courses with limited enrollments, or a combination of all of these.

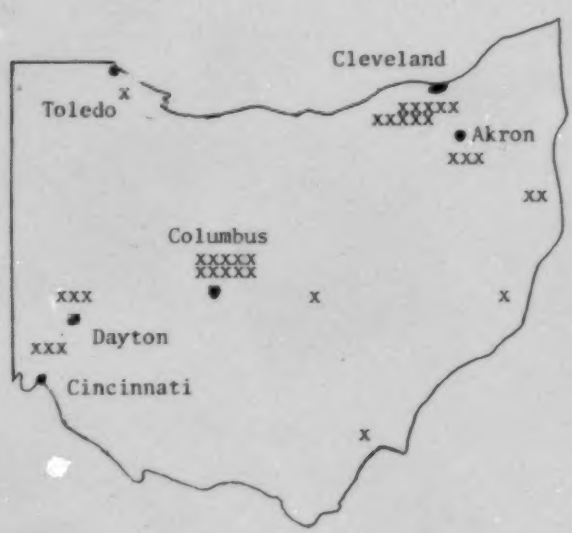

Figure 1. Location of Russian programs in Ohio = x

Materials

The teachers mentioned some twenty titles when asked to identify their basic texts. In order to provide some evaluation of the degree of teacher satisfaction with the five most often cited texts, a value of (3) was assigned to each "quite satisfied" citation, a value of (2) to each "it's OK" citation, and a value of (1) to each "unhappy with it" citation. The results of the evaluations are indicated in Table 4.

TABLE 4

EVALUATIONS OF FIVE MOST COMMONLY CITED TEXTS

Text	Total Citations	Evaluation			Mean Evaluation
		3	2	1	
Liapunov et al., eds., A-L M Russian (Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich)	12	6	5	1	2.41
Fairbanks and Leed, Basic Conversational Russian (Holt, Rinehart and Winston)	7	0	2	5	1.28
Khavronina, Russian As We Speak It (Progress, Moscow)	4	3	1	0	2.75
Fayer, Basic Russian (Pitman)	4	0	4	0	2.00
Bond et al., eds., Graded Russian Reader (Heath)	3	3	0	0	3.00

Each of the following four texts was mentioned twice: Fayer and Pressman, Simplified Russian Grammar (Pitman); Gronicka, Bates-Yakobson, Essentials of Russian (Prentice-Hall); Kostomarov, Russian for Everybody (Progress, Moscow); Smith and Afanasieff, Introduction to Russian (Holt, Rinehart and Winston).

Each of the following texts was mentioned once: Stilman, Stilman, and Harkins, Introductory Russian Grammar (Blaisdell); Potopova, Russian (Foreign Languages Publishing House, Moscow); Domar, Basic Russian (McGraw-Hill); Khavronina, Russian in Exercises (Progress, Moscow); Schacht et al., Easy Readers (EMC Corporation); Doherty et al., Russian:

Books I and II (Heath); and Menac and Volos, Russian by the Audio-Visual Method (Rand-McNally).

When asked to what extent they had been able to locate media (films, tapes, filmstrips, realia, pictures, records, etc.) that were useful to them in their teaching, twelve of the twenty-eight teachers (42 percent) indicated "some," nine (32 percent) "a lot," and seven (25 percent) "very little." Some commonly used media included teachers' slides of the USSR (4); tapes accompanying texts (4); films (4); recorded songs (3); USSR Embassy materials (3); teachers' records from the USSR (2); teachers' realia from the USSR (2); materials from the public library (2); teachers' tapes from the USSR (1); news programs (1); filmstrips (1); and magazines and pictures (1).

When asked what kinds of media and other materials they would like to see increased, the teachers indicated films (6); slide or film-strip series (3); games (2); tapes (2); a student magazine in Russian like KOMETA (2); and songs (1).

Teacher Workshops

In answer to the query regarding the types of workshops that would be most helpful for secondary teachers, the following suggestions were offered (because some of the twenty-eight respondents indicated more than the suggested three choices, all choices have been tallied).

TABLE 5

SUGGESTED WORKSHOPS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL RUSSIAN TEACHERS

Type of Workshop	Number of Respondents Suggesting
Presenting culture units	17
Preparing songs and dances for club and classroom	13
Developing and utilizing speaking exercises, games, tests	13
Developing and utilizing communicative exercises, games, tests	10
Recruiting students; careers in foreign languages	9
Making visual materials	8
Developing and utilizing listening exercises, games, tests	7
Developing and utilizing reading exercises, games, tests	7
Planning language fairs, special days, club activities	7
Developing and utilizing writing exercises, games, tests	5
TOTAL CHOICES	96

From the foregoing data, the following conclusions seem valid for Ohio (to the extent that Ohio can be said to be typical of the United States as a whole, some of these conclusions may be extendable beyond Ohio's borders):

(1) The majority of Russian language teachers at the secondary level are not native speakers of Russian.
(2) Only about half of the Russian language teachers have been to the USSR and/or been involved in some intensive language-training program.
(3) Most Russian language teachers were teachers of some other subject at their present schools before they began teaching Russian.
(4) Half of the Russian language teachers have been teaching Russian for less than seven years.
(5) The enrollment pattern of the last three years in Russian I indicates that the downward trend in enrollments in Russian is continuing.
(6) According to the teachers, paramount among the causes for this trend is the difficulty of Russian as perceived by students and by their counselors.
(7) There is great diversity in the texts used and in the degree of teacher satisfaction with these texts.
(8) There is great diversity in the media employed; teachers feel a need for more visual materials to aid in their teaching.
(9) Teachers feel a need for workshops that would help them devise and utilize units and materials to develop the speaking and communicative skills of their students. (These needs may well reflect the fact that few of the teachers are native speakers, and that over half of them have not been to the USSR.)

Toward Reversing the Trend: Some Possible Courses of Action

As I have tried to show, Russian study at the secondary-school level is plainly losing ground. In his 1970 "Study of Attrition in Foreign Language Enrollments in Four Suburban Public Schools," Anthony Papalia found that the critical points in dropping foreign language study occurred at the end of the second and third level. Fifty percent of the students discontinued their study because they had satisfied requirements for college entrance, and the reasons cited by the other 50 percent who did not continue included (1) the difficulty of the second and third level, (2) a preference for another subject or lack of interest in continuing, (3) the advice of a guidance counselor, and (4) a dislike of the teacher.[5]

Papalia's study may shed some light on why students do not continue in a given language, but we still need to find out why students fail to sign up in the first place. One report dealing specifically with Russian has suggested:

> Russian shares all of the disadvantages faced by other modern foreign languages, plus some unique handicaps. Russian is not viewed as being "practical" as is Spanish, French, or German. Opportunities to travel to the USSR remain sufficiently rare that few students expect to use it. To some it is an enemy language. The national demand for trained Russian speakers appears to have declined. Despite the argument that increasing trade contacts with the USSR will lead to a shortage of Americans trained in Russian, the current demand is not sufficient to stimulate the field.[6]

Another recent report ("Slavic Studies in Ohio") suggests that a second major problem facing Russian instruction

> . . . is that of informing guidance counselors and principals, and influencing them to recommend Russian language courses and language and area courses. Where Russian is not begun at the junior high school level [while other languages such as French, Spanish, and German are offered] in a given school system, it tends to attract the less gifted high school student by the time it is begun in high school.[7]

But perhaps one of the most common--and in my view, interesting--reasons cited for the downward trend in secondary school foreign language study is the following:

> Indeed, the colleges and universities may be largely responsible for much of the drop of interest in high schools. By lowering or eliminating language requirements for admission to or graduation from college, much of the justification for the study of modern foreign languages was eliminated.[8]

Such a viewpoint is interesting because, however valid the claim may be,[9] the frequency with which it is cited underscores the failure on the part of foreign language teachers (and Russian teachers in particular) to convince the general public that foreign language study is worthwhile in its own right. We note that few, if any, colleges require high school music credits from entering freshmen; yet the number of students involved in high school bands, choirs, and orchestras should cause foreign language teachers in general, and Russian language teachers in particular, to experience a healthy case of envy.

In 1967, just after the drop in Russian enrollments had begun, John Bockman, a high school Russian language teacher himself, noted that, ". . . Russian is, and will continue to be, an intruder in the secondary curriculum. Like all intruders, it can and will maintain its position only with great difficulty. . . . The Russian teaching profession must, in my view, concern itself with the discovery of efficient and economical procedures for continuing

Russian programs in the face of small enrollment." Bockman stressed that ". . . instruction in the Russian language can be successfully maintained in the curriculum of a given school only with the tireless effort of the instructor--effort to provide Russian language instruction with compatibility to the age reality and relevance to contemporary, here-and-now teenage society."[10]

We cannot change the Russian language to make it any easier for our students (though most teachers do try to present it to their students in such a way as to facilitate its acquisition). Nor can we reasonably expect that the pattern of eliminating foreign language entrance and graduation requirements from college catalogues will reverse itself in the near future. There seems to be only one solution: we must seek ways to attract students based on the merits of Russian language study in its own right. The remainder of this chapter will concern itself with suggestions that may help the teacher to increase his enrollments.

One approach would employ the resources of secondary schools and a local college or university, whose Russian classes would eventually increase in size from a successful secondary school recruitment campaign. At the Ohio conference cited earlier, suggestions as to ways in which colleges and secondary schools could work together to develop Slavic Studies in their local communities were solicited. In many instances, the same suggestions could apply to cooperation on a broader geographical basis, possibly encompassing the entire state. Among the ideas submitted were the use of educational radio and TV facilities to offer Russian language courses to the general public; showing Russian films in the evening for college and high school students in the area; Slavic banquets, dinners, and programs open to college and secondary school students; field trips for high school students to the local college or university and a local or state-wide Slavic day for high school students; letters of commendation from college departments to a student's high school principal and to his Russian teacher if he is doing particularly well in his college [Russian] courses; encouragement to high school students to continue their studies in the local college if additional courses are not available at their own high school; special summer programs at colleges for gifted high school students with deferred college credit for this work; and, finally, seminars or workshops at the college or university for high school teachers during the academic year, and possibly also during the summer.[11]

Programs such as these would undoubtedly have some effect, if only that of making Russian language study more visible to the public. But what of the Russian language teacher who must, for any of a number of reasons, "go it alone" in his quest for students?

In the speech cited earlier, Bockman also said, "I would tend . . . to consider the teacher to be the greatest source of strength which a language has in a given school."[12] To illustrate this point, I

offer the comments of several Russian teachers whose experiences may suggest a course of action to a colleague faced with the cancellation of his program:

> From 1959 to 1970 students were interested in the study of Russian and other languages because of the university requirements of two years of a language. I averaged 120 students during these years.
>
> Since my enrollment dropped to about 65 since 1970, my administration, counselors and feeder schools have been emphasizing the need for the study of Russian now just as importantly as in the past. My III-IV students have done much as cadet teachers in the elementary schools.
>
> My course requirements and demands have also changed in the past five years. . . . I am trying to meet the needs of individual students by using some techniques of individualized instruction. . . . Our school in the last two years has promoted "advertising campaigns" to encourage students to reevaluate their attitudes towards the study of a second language. . . .
>
> Our local chapter of AATSEEL is also endeavoring to analyze the current situation and to devise means to encourage high school teachers of Russian to exchange ideas. We sponsor (1) an annual Russian Revival Rally and (2) the Illinois State Russian High School Contest.[13]
>
> During the late sixties, enrollment in Russian dropped drastically, and only my principals' determination to keep the program and their support kept the program from going under.[14]
>
> At the present time I am teaching two Russian I classes, one level two class, one level three, four, and five classes. Altogether I have one hundred students.
>
> My students, dressed in Russian costumes, were permitted to visit elementary feeder schools and held a period long assembly. During the assembly they spoke about the Russian program and how the study of Russian could affect their future. They also spoke of their accomplishments and said that it was <u>possible</u> to learn the Russian alphabet.
>
> My students and I have found it necessary to constantly recruit new students. The active Russian club, the Russian Language Festival at the Buhl Planetarium, the poetry reading for high school students, organized by the Slavic Department of the University of Pittsburgh, have all contributed to the enrollment increase. My students thoroughly enjoy participating

in such activities where they can meet other Russian students, and can feel that their knowledge of Russian is useful.[15]

We have been blessed in New Orleans with a steady influx of Russian Jews from the USSR. They have been most gracious and helpful in providing our kids with "native" contact.[16]

If the Russian teacher faced with a dwindling program can enlist the interest of some of his colleagues in other languages (whose enrollments are probably also falling) and can gain the approval of his administration, he might try to move into the junior high schools with an unusual and promising program like the Foreign Language Exploration Program (FLEX) of Topeka, Kansas. In this program, junior high school students are taught six weeks each of French, German, Latin, Russian, and Spanish, in addition to a three-week "Introduction to Language" course at the beginning of the year and a three-week summary period at the end of the year. According to George Rundell, Supervisor of Foreign Languages in the Topeka Public Schools, this program's inception has been directly responsible for the reinstatement in 1974-75 of a Russian program in a high school where the language had been abandoned ten years earlier; had it not been for a board ruling on minimum class sizes, an additional Topeka high school would have had a Russian class this year.[17]

In another program, thirty high school students are selected each summer from the Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area to study Russian at the "Twin-City Institute for Talented Youth." The only requirements for admission to the program are an application by the student and recommendations by the teacher and the school. Students from all different levels of study attend from four to six hours daily, with costs met by the school systems of both cities and by a donation of private foundation funds. 1975 will be the ninth season of this highly successful program.[18,19]

A weekend foreign language camp is a particularly attractive alternative whose principal requirements are the energy, imagination, and cooperation of the teachers involved. I had the privilege of visiting the weekend "village" of Sosnovka not long ago, arriving in a driving "Siberian" snowstorm one Friday night at a ski lodge in the mountains above Denver, where the Russian teachers of Jefferson County had set up a microcosmic Moscow. The 112 high school and junior high school students who arrived shortly thereafter underwent a thorough border check, were issued passports, ate Russian food, took a pledge to try to speak only Russian while in the "country," and in general spent a highly enjoyable weekend making icons and Ukrainian Easter eggs, folk dancing, singing, playing chess, watching Russian movies, presenting skits in Russian, visiting a small GUM--with wares for sale by the various Russian clubs represented, including buttons, T-shirts, and bumper stickers with Russian legends, baked goods, and beriozka-type souvenirs ordered from a New York supply house--or simply sitting and strumming

guitars and balalaikas while others played ping-pong. According to Larry McWilliams, Foreign Language Supervisor for Jefferson County, not only have the camps had their predictable effect of increasing enrollments (some 1,200 students in a six-year sequence of Russian), but they have also had the equally beneficial effect of bringing the teachers themselves closer together.[20]

Finally, many teachers have spoken highly of the enthusiasm engendered by an annual or biannual trip to the Soviet Union.

All of these, and many other suggestions which are apparently helping to boost enrollments, have one thing in common: they carry Russian beyond what have been considered the "traditional" activities of the Russian language teacher and student. Teachers can find a wealth of descriptions of, and information on, such programs in a recent book by Love and Honig, Options and Perspectives: A Sourcebook of Innovative Foreign Language Programs in Action, K-12.[21]

Conclusion

It is taken as axiomatic that anyone interested enough to read this report is also interested in trying to prevent the disappearance of Russian from the secondary school curriculum. It is my opinion that, for purely pragmatic reasons if for no other, the United States cannot afford to relegate Russian to the ranks of the so-called "exotic" languages, where "exotic" is a euphemism for "little-studied." Yet in most areas of the country, this appears to be exactly where the trend is headed. A vigorous campaign seems to be in order to awaken both the public and many professionals from their apathy.

NOTES

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9. See the "Language Requirement Survey," ADFL Bulletin 6 (March 1975): 3.

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RUSSIAN INSTRUCTION: FIRST- AND SECOND-YEAR COLLEGE LEVEL

Donald K. Jarvis, Brigham Young University

Introduction

This report focuses on developments since 1970 in methods of teaching Russian language at the lower division level--the first two years of college instruction. It is primarily a state-of-the-art-as-practiced survey, but it also describes some innovations and identifies the areas of instruction that are widely regarded as needing improvement.

Data were gathered via a survey of recent literature and via a nine-item questionnaire mailed to every United States Russian program listed in a recent issue of the Russian Language Journal.[1] Of 376 questionnaires mailed, 195 were returned, representing a 52 percent response.

This is not an attempt to survey programs or literature outside of the U.S., although materials widely used in this country are included regardless of origin. Enrollments are not studied in detail, as they are discussed by Richard Brod in the first chapter.

Professional Support and Preparation

Strange as it may seem to the European, instruction at the first- and second-year college level is the mainstay of Russian language teaching in the United States. It is at this level that most future Russian specialists begin their studies of the language[2] and large numbers of non-specialists start and end formal study of Russian. Prospects for the secondary schools' assuming the chores of beginning instruction are bleak, for reasons discussed by Gerard Ervin in the previous chapter. Elementary schools have never played a significant role in beginning Russian instruction and cannot be expected to in the near future. In spite of the crucial role of lower division college instruction, professional training and research for this level have been minimal; they appear, however, to be expanding at present.

Several reasons can be cited for the past neglect of training and research in this area. First, due to the short supply of teachers

during the 1950s, "practically any adult who spoke Russian could get a college job teaching the language."[3] Since no methodological training was demanded of applicants, few were interested in acquiring it. To a great extent, this earlier indifference has carried over to the present. Of 742 U.S. and Canadian doctoral dissertations accepted in Slavic languages and literatures from 1961 to 1972, only 3 (0.4 percent) touched Russian teaching methodology, and only 55 (7.4 percent) concerned applicable linguistic subjects.[4] Between 1972 and 1974, however, of 183 U.S. and Canadian dissertations written on Slavic languages and literatures, 6 (3.3 percent) dealt with methodology and 17 (9.3 percent) focused on applicable linguistic topics.[5] The percentage increases are healthy, but the fraction of the total is still woefully small.

The period 1970-74 has seen well-attended and high quality methodology and linguistics sessions at the annual meetings of the American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), and the American Association for the Advancement of Slavic Studies (AAASS). In the scholarly publications of these organizations, however, Russian methodology and linguistics receive little space. Only the Slavic and East European Journal, an organ of AATSEEL, has carried articles on Russian methodology and linguistics; methodology accounts for approximately 6 percent of the total pages of editorial matter, and linguistics 10 percent.[6] AATSEEL's Newsletter, another publication of AATSEEL, devotes to methodology about half of its yearly total of 36-40 pages. Far better support comes from the Canadian quarterly Russian Language Journal, which devotes about half of each issue to articles pertinent to this area and from Russkij jazyk za rubežom [The Russian language abroad], a Moscow University quarterly devoted almost entirely to methodological, cultural, and linguistic questions. Excellent articles on methodology appear occasionally in the Modern Language Journal, the monthly publication of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations. It is disconcerting to note that the strongest publication support for Russian language teaching comes from abroad.

Increased interest in professional organization at this level is indicated by the recent formation of the American Council of Teachers of Russian, an association affiliated with the group publishing Russkij jazyk za rubežom. Other signs of growing interest in this area include (1) the four or five methodology students in degree programs at The Ohio State University, University of Minnesota, and elsewhere; (2) the recent Soviet-American conference on Russian language teaching (Amherst and Cambridge, Massachusetts, October 9-14, 1974), from which many papers are scheduled to appear in the Slavic and East European Journal; (3) the fact that teaching at this level was indicated in 35 percent of the 164 job notices carried in AATSEEL's Newsletter 1972-74;

and (4) recent articles voicing the need for better preparation of college instructors for the first- and second-year college level. For example, John Fahey scores "excessive emphasis on literature,"[7] and Ned Davison laments "widespread professional naiveté" in all languages due to the fact that "virtually nowhere in the preparation of doctoral candidates . . . is there . . . any formal attempt to consider the practical nature of the business."[8] Howard Aronson complains that far too many American graduates have simply not acquired fluency or an adequate grasp of crucial linguistic concepts even at the Ph.D. level.[9] V. Kostomarov feels we are overproducing specialists,[10] and Howard Daugherty criticizes those who teach Russian "as if all our students were going to major in it."[11] Peter Fischer notes the following:

> That the teaching of language to undergraduates has not ceased to be treated as a sort of garbage detail to which any dope can be assigned becomes tragically obvious in some of the letters we receive from newly baked Ph.D.'s now entering the job market. They tell you in great detail the depth and volume of literature courses they wish to teach, and then they add, almost by way of an afterthought, that they are prepared to teach Russian language--if need be. The nurturing and perpetuation of that sort of snobbism in many Slavic graduate departments is, in my opinion, directly responsible for the undergraduates' disaffection.[12]

The increasing availability of instructors with a good command of the language should allow more attention to background in methods for prospective instructors. According to the responses to our questionnaire, nearly 80 percent of the instructors of first- and second-year Russian at the college level are native speakers of Russian or have resided in the USSR. Only 32 percent of the 455 instructors serving at this level are native speakers of Russian, but an astonishing 71 percent of the 311 non-natives had spent over one month in the USSR. Of course, experience abroad does not guarantee fluency, but our survey results do reflect the increased opportunities for contact with native speakers of Russian in the USSR.

According to our respondents, over 92 percent of the instructors teaching Russian language courses enjoy it. While this may seem a somewhat utopian rate of job satisfaction, there is little in my experience to refute that statistic.

The above factors combined with the present unpromising placement outlook for literature specialists may move graduate departments toward more concern for preparing teachers of beginning college levels, but it is difficult to persuade professors who have specialized in literary analysis and theoretical linguistics to seriously consider the art of teaching Russian to beginners; professional rewards

have lain too long at the uncrowded fringes of the discipline rather than at the core. Attention to the concerns of language teaching is long overdue.

Widely Used Techniques

A picture of the typical first-year Russian course emerges from our questionnaire. The instructor is very likely a native American who has been in the USSR over one month, rather enjoys teaching this area, prefers a non-doctrinaire, eclectic approach, and uses Stilman, Stilman and Harkins' Introductory Russian Grammar (Lexington, Massachusetts: Xerox, 1972) as a text. Students have about five hours' contact per week with the language in class and laboratory. From our own experience, we can add that the class comprises 15-25 students and is self-contained, i.e., meets in the same room with the same teacher and group of students at the same time each meeting for a 45-50 minute class period. In addition, each student will be expected to spend time each week in the language laboratory listening to tape recordings of material coordinated with his text. This he will do unenthusiastically, if at all.

The problem of total hours of contact intensifies the need for effective methods. Most of our non-specialist students fulfill their general education foreign language requirements (if any) with two to four semesters' work, and our majors must build most of their foundation for advanced study here. How does one impart in three or four semesters (70 weeks X 5 hours per week = 350 hours' contact) a working knowledge of more than one skill in a language? Daugherty and Aronson doubt it can be done.[13] By contrast, most Soviet students begin their foreign language study in the fifth grade and average a little less than three class hours per week over the next six years, giving them over 600 hours of contact with the language when they begin college-level work.

It is true that about half of American universities provide more contact than five hours per week. Six percent of our respondents reported more than seven hours of contact (class plus laboratory) per week, 11 percent reported 6-7 hours' contact, and 31 percent 5-6 hours, making a total of 48 percent reporting more than five hours per week. However, 39 percent report 4-5 hours' contact and 13 percent less than four hours per week, making a total of 52 percent of students receiving less than five hours of instruction per week. Many of these schools should probably reexamine their language laboratories and consider establishing Russian houses and other programs to increase contact. Catherine Chvany[14] and Sanford Couch[15] have made useful suggestions for improving language laboratory effectiveness: Couch's proposed use of the speech compressor (a device for speeding or slowing speech without distorting pitch) could well revolutionize the language laboratory as a learning aid.

If most programs must teach Russian in less than 400 hours, method is of vital concern. Thirty-five percent of our respondents described their method as "eclectic," 32 percent as "audiolingual," and 26 percent as "grammar-translation."

The grammar-translation approach, now sometimes referred to as the "cognitive-code approach," is usually understood to mean an emphasis on deductive application of well-defined linguistic rules as well as exposition of linguistic contrasts through translation exercises. Class work tends to emphasize written skills and discussion in English of linguistic generalizations. This approach was bitterly criticized in the late 1950s and early 1960s for failure to impart listening and speaking skills. The vast majority of beginning Russian texts produced in the United States until 1965 would have to be classed in this category.

The audiolingual method is generally understood as an operant-conditioning approach to language teaching, publicized through the success of the Department of Defense language schools. The audiolingual method emphasizes speaking and listening skills and habit formation. Massive oral practice, pattern drills, memorized dialogues, occasional use of visuals, and an inductive approach to grammar characterize the method, which enjoyed its highest prestige in the early 1960s. Modern Russian, Russian for Everybody, and the A-LM materials[16] are some of the most widely known texts employing variants of this approach. Broad claims for the superiority of this method have never been substantiated by empirical data in any language, but it had the effect of bringing about more balance between oral and written skills, and brought recognition of the value of practice and habit formation as necessary if not sufficient aspects of language teaching. The audiolingual approach has come under criticism on theoretical as well as practical grounds,[17] but no method since has aroused the interest and following that it did.

Taking a dialectical view of the history of Russian teaching methods, it was predictable that the grammar-translation thesis and the audiolingual antithesis would result in a synthesis or syntheses with features of each. It is probable that careful analysis of beginning Russian classes would reveal far more than 36 percent actually using various eclectic approaches.

Beginning Texts

The most popular texts for this level in the next decade will probably be methodological smorgasbords employing the best features of both audiolingual and grammar-translation methods, thus allowing teachers wide latitude in method. Evidence for this is found in the present overwhelming popularity of Stilman, Stilman, and Harkins' Introductory Russian Grammar, used in over 37 percent of the programs surveyed, and studied by 35 percent of the students. It employs both pattern drills and translation exercises, linguistic description and dialogues. The second most popular text, Ben T. Clark's

Russian for Americans (New York: Harper and Row, 1973) also combines dialogues and pattern drills with detailed generalizations, translation exercises, and content-centered questions. Clark's text is used by 9 percent of the programs and students surveyed.

Kostomarov's Russian for Everybody (Moscow: Progress, c. 1972) seems at first glance to be an orthodox audiolingual exception to the general eclectic trend: it has numerous visuals, pattern drills, and dialogues but no translation exercises or grammar discussions (even though the introduction to RFE states that the text includes grammar explanations). Still, it has rapidly increased in popularity to become the third most widely used text, adopted by 8 percent of the programs and studied by 9 percent of beginning students. Further study, however, reveals that many instructors supplement it with extensive grammar explanations, vocabulary lists, and translation exercises.[18]

The eclectic trend is further borne out by the fourth most widely adopted text in terms of student use: Fairbanks and Leeds' Basic Conversational Russian (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964). It is adopted by only 4 percent of the programs, but 6 percent of U.S. students use it.

Fourth and fifth place are held by Dawson, Bidwell, and Humesky's model audiolingual text, Modern Russian (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964), and von Gronicka and Bates-Yakobson's grammar-translation text, Essentials of Russian. They are each followed in 6 percent of the programs, but these are apparently smaller programs, as their enrollments account for only 4 percent (Dawson) and 3 percent (von Gronicka) of total beginning students. Additional data on beginning texts are found in Table 1.

Second-Year Texts

In second-year courses a grammar-translation text supplemented by a reader is favored. No single text at this level is as clearly preferred as Stilman is at the first-year level.

Davis-Oprendek's Making Progress in Russian (Lexington, Massachusetts: Xerox, 1973) is a straightforward grammar-translation text used by 25 percent of all students. The Stilman and Harkins text is popular at this level also, being used by 17 percent of all second-year students. Sharing third place in popularity are Townsend's Continuing with Russian (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970), another grammar-translation approach, and Xavronina's Russian as We Speak It (Moscow: Progress, n.d.) This last text has long been popular; it is favored for its wide variety of exercises, including translation from English, and simple reading selections on everyday life. Favorite readers are Bond-Bobrinsky's Graded Russian Reader (New York: Heath, 1961) and Harper's New Voices (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966). Other texts and readers are listed in Table 2.

TABLE 1

FIRST YEAR RUSSIAN TEXTS AND ENROLLMENTS

Ten Most Commonly Used Texts	Number of Universities Using Text	Number of Students Using Text	Average First Year Russian Enrollment at University Using Text
G. Stilman and W. Harkins, Introductory Russian Grammar (Xerox, 1972)	71 (37%)	2365 (35%)	33.3
B. Clark, Russian for Americans, 2nd ed. (Harper and Row, 1973)	18 (9%)	616 (9%)	34.2
V. Kostomarov, Russkij jazyk dlja vsex (Progress, Moscow, n.d.)	15 (8%)	635 (9%)	42.3
C. Dawson, C. Bidwell and A. Humesky, Modern Russian I (Harcourt, Brace & World, 1964)	12 (6%)	260 (4%)	21.6
A. Von Gronika and H. Bates-Yakobson, Essentials of Russian, 4th ed. (Prentice-Hall, 1964)	12 (6%)	184 (3%)	15.3
M. Fayer and A. Pressman, Simplified Russian Grammar, 2nd ed. (Pitman, 1963)	9 (5%)	213 (3%)	23.7
G. Fairbanks and R. Leed, Basic Conversational Russian (Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964)	8 (4%)	410 (6%)	51.2
O. Bond and G. Bobrinskoy, eds., Graded Russian Readers (Heath, 1961)	8 (4%)	305 (4%)	38.1
M. Smith and V. Afanassieff, Introduction to Russian (Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970)	8 (4%)	222 (3%)	27.8
P. Rudy, S. Youhn and H. Nebel, Russian: A Complete Elementary Course (Norton and Co., 1970)	6 (3%)	246 (4%)	41.0

In addition to these 10 texts, 35 other texts were reported, none of which was used by more than 5 universities.

TABLE 2

SECOND YEAR RUSSIAN TEXTS AND ENROLLMENTS

Eight Most Commonly Used Texts	Number of Universities Using Text	Number of Students Using Text	Average Second Year Russian Enrollment at University Using Text
P. Davis and D. Oprendek, Making Progress in Russian (Xerox, 1973)	36 (18%)	785 (25%)	21.8
S. Xavronina, Russian As We Speak It, 4th ed. (Progress, Moscow, n.d.)	31 (16%)	518 (16%)	16.7
G. Stilman and W. Harkins, Introductory Russian Grammar, 2nd ed. (Xerox, 1972)	30 (15%)	538 (17%)	17.9
C. Townsend, Continuing with Russian, (McGraw-Hill, 1970)	22 (12%)	509 (16%)	23.1
O. Bond and G. Bobrinskoy, eds., Graded Russian Readers (Heath, 1961)	22 (12%)	255 (8%)	12.0
K. Harper, G. Koulaeff and M. Gisetti, eds., New Voices (Harcourt, Brace & World, 1966)	16 (8%)	259 (8%)	16.1
B. Clark, Russian for Americans, 2nd. ed. (Harper & Row, 1973)	10 (5%)	162 (5%)	16.2
J. Iwanik, ed., Russian Short Stories (Heath, 1962)	8 (4%)	99 (3%)	12.3

In addition to these 8 texts, 55 other texts were reported, none of which was used by more than 7 universities.

Innovative Programs and Techniques

As noted in the preceding section, unorthodoxy is the new orthodoxy: eclecticism is in vogue, and it seems a fertile ground for creativity. Several innovative techniques have been mentioned recently in the literature: (1) computer-based and computer-assisted instruction (CBI and CAI), (2) individualized programs, (3) speech delay, (4) decoding courses, (5) the Lipson technique. These seem at first glance to have little in common, but closer inspection reveals some common factors: (1) all develop a high level of student involvement; (2) all but speech delay encourage student initiative and expression of individuality, long recognized in psychological literature as motivating factors;[19] (3) the Lipson technique, speech delay, and decoding courses emphasize focus on the content as well as the form of the sentence, an aspect recently advocated by Birkmaier;[20] (4) all but the Lipson technique involve limitations on oral work.

CAI-CBI

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI), in which the computer serves as an adjunct to regular class work, has recently been reviewed by George Kalbouss[21] and Edward Purcell.[22] Negative aspects of CAI include (1) the fact that expenses for nine months could amount to over $5,000 for computer time and one terminal;[23] (2) non-marked, non-standard Cyrillic keyboards; and (3) the present limitation to practice of written skills only. Nevertheless, Kalbouss notes CAI's value in vocabulary and grammar drills: the machine can explain a student's errors to him while he is doing his exercises and can tailor exercises to his needs. Kalbouss also notes the computer's value in materials preparation: the machine can easily help the instructor control vocabulary used in exercises and can record and analyze student errors for the benefit of both student and instructor. CAI was reported by two programs responding to our survey--University of Southern California, and Gallaudet College (for the deaf) in Washington, D.C.

Computer-based instruction (CBI) denotes reliance on the computer to do the bulk of the instruction. Sophisticated, successful programs teaching translation by computer at the University of Illinois have been described by Constance Curtin et al.,[24] as has a branching CBI program at Stanford University.[25]

Speech Delay

Speech delay is a technique in which beginning classwork omits speaking practice in favor of content-centered listening and writing practice. Visual aids and active student response are also key elements. Early homework assignment may include reading and writing practice. The value of delaying speech and developing listening comprehension was convincingly presented over a decade ago by

James Asher,[26] but only recently has the principle been applied to a technique other than Asher's Total Physical Response Method. Valerian Postovsky reports impressive empirical evidence for the method's superiority in developing a base for all four skills: speaking skills were surprisingly enhanced in Defense Language Institute subjects who began with a six weeks' speech delay.[27] Donald Dragt has reported favorably on its use at Michigan State,[28] and Frank Ingram has reviewed literature on the area.[29] Daugherty's transformational-based "structure" course at the University of Colorado also deemphasizes active oral skills,[30] but does not emphasize listening comprehension as much as the above programs do. In addition, the University of Rochester (N.Y.) and Idaho State University report courses that may be considered variants of the speech delay approach, as they stress passive skills.

Individualized Instruction

Despite massive interest in individualization in other languages, Russian instructors have been extremely hesitant to experiment with it. Based on the premise that learning rate is a crucial variable in instructional success, individualized programs allow each student to proceed at his own pace through a given set of instructional materials. Teachers are viewed as course organizers, reference individuals, and evaluators. Little convincing empirical evidence has been presented to indicate self-pacing techniques' superiority in foreign language instruction, especially at the college level, where students have some control over total course load and are usually tolerant of, if not dependent upon, the instructor's pressure to maintain speed through course material. Patterson reports tentative but generally favorable results with an individualized college Russian program at the University of California at Davis. Although staffing and materials preparation were a problem and student progress through material was less than normal, motivation was increased and attrition rates reduced.[31]

James Connell describes a less structured but apparently highly successful individualization scheme for a small college program.[32] M. Keith Meyers gives a detailed description of an individualized Russian program at Earlham College (Richmond, Indiana) but reports no conclusions from it.[33]

In an empirical study conducted at Purdue University, William Buffington found significant advantages for the self-paced mode in advanced students' learning and recall of Russian vocabulary, and he convincingly argues for further study of self-pacing and self-evaluation.[34]

Decoding Courses

Beginning courses that focus on the single skill of reading technical Russian--frequently called "decoding" courses, since merely understanding a written text is usually the goal of such

classes--are hardly new, but recently they have been the object of renewed interest as part of a general trend toward limiting class focus for achievement of a useful skill.

The CBI course at Illinois, mentioned earlier, is a decoding course. A more conventional program at Brigham Young University has recently been described[35] and apparently shares some elements with a Pennsylvania State course described over a decade ago:[36] drastic limitations on required vocabulary together with increased emphasis on word derivation, deducing dictionary forms, and understanding participles and other deverbative forms. Students are allowed to begin reading in their own fields as soon as possible with individualized aid from the instructor.

The Lipson Technique

Six of our respondents listed their method as "Lipson technique." This method is characterized by (1) class dynamics emphasizing role-playing, whimsy, creativity, and humorous recombination of carefully controlled elements; (2) visual symbols to avoid translation; (3) a strong oral emphasis as a basis for later reading; (4) inductive presentation of grammar rules which are then explicitly set forth; (5) a careful presentation of the single-stem verb system.[37] A published version of the Lipson technique is now available.[38]

Needs

Our questionnaire listed seven suggested needs of the profession plus two spaces marked "other (list)____." Respondents were requested to circle "the two most pressing needs for improvement of instruction at the college level."

Of the 329 responses tallied for this item, a plurality of 24 percent chose "extensive reading material with controlled vocabulary, inherent interest." It is interesting that Jacob Ornstein noted this same lack two decades ago.[39] Gerald Mayer[40] and Aronson[41] have stressed the importance of abstract vocabulary, and Aronson suggests more non-fiction material is needed. Dan Chopyk[42] describes needs in graded readers: one new word in thirty-five familiar words, a maximum of one new word per three or four lines of text, presentation of various transformations of new words, and concentration on high-frequency words.

The second most frequently chosen item (21 percent) was "integration of culture to raise student interest and understanding of Russians." Aronson has recently stressed this "as a weakness in our language programs."[43]

Milla Fischer[44] and Donald Jarvis[45] have described in detail methods for integrating Russian culture directly into teaching materials and classroom activities. "Culture," whenever presented in

language classes, has too frequently been limited to geography, tours of cities, and sketches of authors' lives. A broader range of subjects needs to be covered much as Valentin Tschebotarioff-Bill[46] and Vladimir Tolstoy[47] have done, but the material needs to be worked into beginning texts, glossed readers, and conversational aids. Sociological and anthropological data such as that covered by Genevra Gerhart[48] and Jarvis[49] should be incorporated in order to increase understanding of contemporary life, especially norms and values. It would also be useful if parts of Buffington's excellent Russian culture television series[50] could be remade in Russian and made available in inexpensive video cassettes or 8-mm sound cartridges.

Nineteen percent of our respondents marked "better beginning texts" as their most pressing need. Comments after this item indicated a desire for a compact text that would cover grammar in one year and not be so dull as some now are. Chopyk[51] and many others, including myself, feel that the logical way to keep the text compact would be to hold vocabulary to a minimum the first year.

The fourth most frequently chosen area (14 percent) concerned listening comprehension materials. Claire Walker has called this a prime need,[52] and a government official has recently commented that most of our graduates are sadly lacking in this skill.[53]

Of the write-in suggestions of most pressing needs, the plurality of comments concerned the need for better second-year texts and readers.

A final deficiency, not listed in the questionnaire, but obvious to the observer, concerns the federally funded area centers. They have had relatively little impact on Russian language teaching at the beginning college level. With the exception of The Ohio State University Doctor of Arts program, most centers have evinced little interest in methodology and teaching at this level, if we are to judge by the dissertations, articles, or innovative programs originating from them. The participants and administrators of the NDEA centers could profitably discuss this lack and the means to remedy it. One seminal project might be an inexpensive or fully subsidized testing program to identify superior teaching. Priority should be given to the identification of the factors responsible for this superiority and the subsequent dissemination of these findings. In this way, the teaching and the study of Russian could be significantly improved.

NOTES

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51. Chopyk, "The Need for Graded Readers," pp. 47-51.

52. Claire Walker, "What is Our First Priority in Teaching?" Slavic and East European Journal 14 (Spring 1970): 47-53.

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INTENSIVE RUSSIAN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

Robert Lager, Georgetown University

Intensive language programs as conducted in many American colleges and universities have several important characteristics. The fact that a language program is "intensive" does not mean that it differs from "non-intensive" programs only in the amount of time per week devoted to instruction.[1] The major distinguishing feature of an intensive program is the method of approach.

As distinct from courses taught by the grammar-translation method or any of the various "direct" methods, the modern intensive language program is based on a linguistic approach to the structure and control of the language being learned. The grammar-translation method, with its primary emphasis on grammar memorization and dictionary translation, and the "direct" method, which relies on direct contact with the target language in meaningful situations, are generally thought to be not well suited to intensive programs.

More appropriate for intensive programs is an approach to language learning and teaching based on the results of linguistic findings. This approach includes the imitation and memorization of sentences and patterns in Russian as well as discussion of the descriptive elements of the structure of modern Russian intonation, pronunciation, morphology, and syntax.

The basic components of the intensive Russian program are five: (1) conversational sentences for imitation and memorization (dialogues), (2) explanation of the basic as well as more complex aspects of the structure of Russian, (3) pattern practice exercises whose purpose is to assist the student in establishing the linguistic patterns of Russian as habits, (4) a well-prepared set of language laboratory materials for oral-aural practice outside of the classroom, (5) opportunity for the student to use Russian in communication rather than merely for translation.[2] Use of the language in communication can range from free conversation in the drill class to meetings with speakers of Russian that give the student an opportunity to use what has been learned in a natural language situation.

Intensive Russian language programs exist in several American colleges and universities as well as some government facilities. With variations and modifications they are similar in many respects.

All strive for the same goal: to bring the student to a high level of fluency in the four components of language mastery--understanding, reading, writing, and speaking. Intensive Russian language programs are currently being conducted at Georgetown University, Indiana University, Middlebury College, Princeton University, The Ohio State University, and some of the University of California institutions. There are, of course, other institutions with programs which exceed the norm of three hours per week, but which do not emphasize the elements generally associated with an "intensive" program.

The governmental programs include those at the Foreign Service Institute and the Defense Language Institute as well as specialized courses created for the armed forces. Indeed, the concept of intensive language training originated during World War II and was initiated by governmental institutions whose outlays for rapid instruction and new language learning materials provided both the impetus and direction for this type of instruction. Most prominent of the Russian materials produced as the result of government interest are Modern Russian I and II, by Clayton Dawson, Charles Bidwell, and Assya Humesky. Nor can one fail to mention the salubrious effect of the many governmental funding programs, which began in 1958. Funding through the U.S. Office of Education as well as various private organizations has been a significant feature in the improvement and intensification of the instruction of Russian in the United States.

Since it would be impossible to describe all the variations on the general principle of intensive language programs within the scope of this section, I shall limit my discussion to the four-year intensive Russian language program at Georgetown University. The goals of the various levels of this program are summarized below.

Level I, Intensive Basic I (first semester). At this level the student must master the phonological system of Russian as well as the major grammatical patterns by listening and speaking. Although writing (composition) is minimal during the first semester, the student is expected to be able to compose basic dialogues on colloquial topics. At the same time, material of a cultural nature is introduced.

Level II, Intensive Basic II (second semester). Here the mastery of language patterns for communication is stressed. Level II emphasizes vocabulary building and the more complex grammatical structures of Russian. During Level II the student is introduced to written Russian (other than the classroom materials) in the form of short stories or one-act plays in the original versions.

Levels III and IV, Intensive Advanced I and II (third and fourth semesters). The grammatical concepts already covered are reviewed, and more complex structural elements (verbal adverbs, participles, number system, etc.) are introduced. There is continued emphasis

on development of pronunciation, with individual attention given by a drill instructor. Vocabulary building, reading, and writing are also stressed. In addition to the classroom materials, students read modern Russian short stories.

Levels V and VI, Composition and Style, and Russian Phonology, Morphology and Syntax (fifth and sixth semesters). The Composition and Style course places emphasis on active and productive use of Russian in both oral and written forms and reviews the structure of the more complex grammatical patterns. The cultural material includes modern Soviet short stories as well as current magazines and newspapers. The purpose of the Phonology, Morphology and Syntax course is twofold: first, to give the student the opportunity to study and discuss the structure of Russian in Russian, and second, to introduce the more esoteric elements of stylistics and usage.

Levels VII and VIII (seventh and eighth semesters). By the fourth year, the student is expected to have a high degree of fluency in Russian and to possess a large vocabulary. In levels VII and VIII there are two major divisions. Students whose interests are mainly in the field of literature take Readings in Nineteenth Century Literature, Readings in Twentieth Century Literature, and Introduction to Russian Literature. Those whose interests lie in teaching take fewer courses in the field of literature, and concentrate on such courses as Russian Structure or The History and Development of Russian. For students who are interested in a career in government or business, there are courses in Business and Journalistic Russian and Russian-English/English-Russian Translation.

The program at Georgetown encourages the student to operate in Russian as soon and as completely as possible. To this end, although some English is used in the explanation of structure in Levels I and II, an attempt is made to use Russian as much as possible. Beginning with Level III, the courses are taught entirely in Russian. For transfer students or students with prior Russian study, the program as described above is adapted as necessary. A detailed description of the intensive courses follows.

Intensive Basic Russian I and II. Modern Russian I & II[3] (units 1-26) is supplemented by mimeographed materials developed by the Department of Russian. In addition, the short stories of Pushkin ("Povesti Belkina") and the one-act plays of Chekhov are used in their original form during the second semester.

Sixteen total contact hours per week comprise grammar explanation (three hours), reading/review (two hours), drill (five hours), and language laboratory work (six hours).

The entire group (55-65 students) participates in the grammar review classes. New grammatical concepts are presented in English during the first semester but are generally reviewed in Russian. Explanation

of grammatical concepts is geared to support the major aim of the program: teaching the student to operate correctly in Russian with little or no thought given to structure. Most testing is also conducted during these class meetings.

For the daily drill classes, the students are divided into groups of 8-10 per drill instructor. The purpose of the drill class is to offer each student as much individual attention as possible. The instructors are either native or non-native speakers who are fluent in Russian and have had linguistic and pedagogical training. Stress is put on correcting and improving pronunciation in the drill classes. At the beginning of the year, the drill instructor uses only the drill and pattern practice material prescribed in the course materials. As the course progresses, the work in the drill classes turns from emphasis on the prepared drills to spontaneous drills and free conversation. In addition, dialogues are memorized and presented in the drill classes.

The purpose of the dialogues is twofold. Memorization of dialogues aids the student--particularly in the beginning stages of the program--to observe and operate in the Russian language in a meaningful way. More importantly, the dialogues provide a point of departure from which the student may proceed to free conversation or additions to the assigned dialogue. This is an integral part of the drill work.

In addition to the class hours described above, each student is expected to work six hours per week in the language laboratory. These assignments are closely integrated with the work in both the grammar and the drill classes. The grammar concepts are first presented in class, the student then works with the appropriate material in the language laboratory, and, finally, the concepts are covered with the drill instructor who not only repeats the written drills but also proceeds to spontaneous drills and conversations that include the area being studied. The laboratory materials also serve as very profitable tools for review.

By the end of the first-year intensive program, the student should have mastered the basic grammatical patterns of Russian and should have control over an active vocabulary of approximately 1,750 words and an additional passive vocabulary of approximately 1,250 words.

Intensive Advanced Russian I and II. The goals of the advanced program are to improve fluency, expose the student to the more complex structural patterns, and provide as much opportunity as possible to converse in Russian. Texts include Modern Russian II (units 27-36); Khavronina, Russian As We Speak It[4] and short stories by Soviet authors, e.g., Grin, Paustovsky, A. Tolstoy, Soloukhin, Shukshin.

Classroom instruction includes three hours of grammar and review, two hours of reading and discussion, and three hours of drill work

per week. For reading/discussion and drill classes, the groups consist of 8-10 students per group. In addition to the classwork, each student is expected to spend a minimum of five hours per week with the language laboratory materials.

In the advanced course, tapes are available for the grammar materials and for all stories and plays. The taped stories and plays are used not merely to improve the student's ability to understand Russian but also to provide a vehicle through which conversation may be elicited.

Composition, which is not stressed in the first-year course, is an integral component of the second-year program. Each student must write at least one composition per week, based either on the material being used in the class or a topic approved by the instructor. Compositions are corrected and discussed with each student individually.

At the end of the Intensive Advanced Russian course the student should control an active vocabulary of approximately 3,200 words and be able to converse freely in Russian on general topics. With the exception of stylistics and historical linguistics, which are covered in the third year courses, the student is expected to control the grammatical patterns of Russian in an active way.

Russian Composition and Style. The course meets daily, i.e., five hours per week. Class size is held to a maximum of fifteen students per section. The purpose of the course is to expose the student to the stylistic variations of both written and spoken Russian as well as to provide as much practice in composition as possible.

Materials used include Lager, Russian Readings and Dialogues,[5] Pul'kina, Grammatika Russkogo Jazyka,[6] and selected Russian short stories and plays (from both pre- and post-revolutionary literature).

Topics covered in the conversation section of the course include transportation, recreation, movies, theater, ballet, opera, travel, libraries, bookstores, shopping, families, housing, schools, professions, communication, nature, geography, history, and human physical and spiritual characteristics. Materials relating to these subjects are available in the language laboratory; each student is expected to work a minimum of three hours per week in the laboratory.

At this level, composition is based on the stories that are presented. Students are required to write compositions that are not merely a re-telling of the plot, but that include analysis and critique of the material read. A minimum of one composition per week is submitted by each student. The compositions are graded by the instructor who then discusses and analyzes them with each student individually.

At the same time each student is taking the Composition and Style course, he or she is also engaged in the Russian Phonology, Morphology and Syntax course whose content and goals were outlined earlier.

An integral part of the intensive program at Georgetown are such activities as the Russian Club, drama group, dance group, and choir, and the programs which offer the opportunity to study and live in the Soviet Union.

One cannot overemphasize the importance of suitable language laboratory materials in any intensive Russian language course. They must relate not only to the elements contained in the lectures or the text, but they should also include drills that encourage the student to apply what he has learned actively and in a language-structured contextual environment. Well-composed tape materials are an indispensable component of a successful intensive program.

Due to the large number of contact hours and the variety of skills being taught, intensive courses require teams of instructors, each specializing in one or more of the basic elements of the course. The team of instructors must meet frequently to plan the course, usually on a week-to-week basis, to discuss common problems and the needs and progress of each student in the course. Regrettably, the majority of institutions offering Russian do not make provision for an intensive learning experience such as that described here.

An intensive program should bring the student to as great a fluency as his or her capabilities will allow in the skills of speaking, reading, writing, and understanding Russian. It is only after this goal is realized that the student is ready to turn to more specific skills requiring a very high level of fluency--literature, translation, or linguistics, for example.

In addition to intensive programs conducted during the regular academic year, there are several institutions that provide intensive summer instruction in Russian. Such programs are regularly offered by Columbia, Georgetown, Indiana, Middlebury, Norwich and Yale, among others. (It is unfortunate that a number of summer institutes in Russian were eliminated by recent reductions in government funding.) Summer intensive programs, while necessarily shorter than those during the academic year, generally are organized according to the same principles as the longer ones. Some of these programs are indeed "intensive." The program at Middlebury, for example, covers a full year's instruction in 9 weeks. There are far more contact hours during this program than during the regular academic year--180 hours, exclusive of lab and homework, during the summer as opposed to 90 hours of contact over the academic year. Moreover, the first year of Russian at Middlebury is considered the equivalent of two years' instruction at many other institutions.[7] Table 1 lists some of the intensive programs offered during the summer of 1975.

TABLE 1

1975 U.S. SUMMER STUDY

Sponsoring Institution	Enrollment	Course Description	Duration
The Russian School of Norwich University, Northfield, Vermont	Undergraduate and graduate	Intensive Russian language, literature, and culture with related activities	7 weeks
Indiana University	All levels	Russian language levels 1-6 (first-year Russian)	10 weeks
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill		Intensive elementary Russian-1st summer session, Intensive intermediate Russian-2nd summer session (one year of Russian)	5 weeks
School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont		Intensive spoken Russian (6 semester hours)	4 weeks
Middlebury College Middlebury, Vermont	Undergraduate and graduate	Intensive Russian, Levels I, II, III Level IV Graduate Courses	9 weeks 7 weeks 7 weeks
Yale University		Intensive courses in Bulgarian, Czech, Lithuanian, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, and Ukrainian	8 weeks

In this section I have attempted to provide a general view of intensive Russian language programs by describing one of them in detail. Obviously, there will be variations in method from one campus to another. However, the purpose here is to give the reader an appreciation of the overall goals and realities of intensive programs as they exist in the United States.

NOTES

1. Intensive programs generally meet from ten to sixteen hours per week; non-intensive programs usually meet from three to five hours per week.

2. Robert Lado, Language and Language Learning (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964).

3. Clayton L. Dawson, Charles E. Bidwell, and Assya Humesky, Modern Russian I & II (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964).

4. S. Khavronina, Russian as We Speak It, 2nd ed. (Moscow: Progress, n.d.)

5. Robert Lager, Russian Readings and Dialogues (Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1972). (Mimeographed.)

6. I. M. Pul'kina, Grammatika Russkogo Jazyka (Moscow: Progress, n.d.).

7. Robert L. Baker, personal communication with ERIC/CLL editor, July 1975.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION IN RUSSIAN

George Kalbouss, The Ohio State University

During the decade 1965-75, many foreign language departments were forced to abolish language requirements, and with them, the "captive audience" that they had had for many years. In many instances where foreign language requirements were dropped, course enrollments, particularly in Spanish and French, decreased dramatically. Clearly, foreign language education had a new motive for survival and reform. It was in this context that the concept of "individualized instruction" began to become popular.

The Russian teaching profession has been involved in this process of individualization, but without the threats that its sister languages have encountered. Russian instruction, in general, is only marginally threatened by the abolition of the language requirement; few students enroll in Russian simply to fulfill a requirement for graduation. On the contrary, Russian courses tend to attract a peculiar kind of student-zealot-pioneer who is positively motivated into mastering languages and frequently works much harder than his classmates in French and Spanish.

Nevertheless, Russian language teaching also needed its own reforms. The Monterey experience showed that the saturation method of language instruction is particularly effective in the teaching of oral and aural Russian and that no academic institution could graduate a person as fluent in these aspects of the language as did the United States Army. While one could rationalize that the Army accomplishment was achieved by eighteen months' intensive and exclusive study, the Russian product at an American college or university was less skilled than his German and French counterpart at the same institution. Many instructors agree that it takes two years of Russian study to equal one year of French or Spanish.

With the advent of East-West detente, new demands have been placed on Russian above and beyond the need for a reformation. The most recent crop of students study Russian for a variety of purposes, only one of which is to pursue a career in language and literature teaching. Students currently enrolled in Russian hope that it may prove useful in engineering, law, the social sciences, trade, business administration, government work, and a host of other fields.

Knowledge of the Russian literary language no longer suffices as the goal of language study. Each of the new fields has its own technical vocabulary requiring its own readings and exercises. Yet as matters stand, the Russian teaching profession is spread too thinly throughout the United States (and within individual universities) to cope with this new diversified clientele and new teaching materials. Clearly, a plan for individualization can overcome the administrative difficulties presented by this situation. The computer provides an excellent solution to the problem.

As an educational tool, the computer has been used in the universities virtually since its invention. In most academic institutions, computer work is performed via a "time-sharing" system in which satellite teletype or screen terminals are linked to a central computer "brain" by telephone lines. In many instances, the satellites are hundreds of miles away from the computers. Students using the computer merely activate the terminal, type in the proper codes to engage the desired program, and then proceed to interact with the computer through a variety of question-and-answer techniques. Depending upon the sophistication of the program, the computer analyzes their responses, identifies errors, and requires the students to type in the correct answer. Ideally, of course, the program is an alter ego of the author/instructor who has already anticipated the range of errors the student may make.

Typical Russian programs involve vocabulary exercises and questions of the multiple-choice and completion variety. Depending on the instructor's pedagogical biases, programs may be entirely in Russian or in combinations of Russian and English. The degree of the sophistication of the program lies in the ability of the instructor to understand the technology available to him, his mastery of the particular unit of instruction, his ability to program, and the free time at his disposal to place the programs on the computer. With this quadruple requirement, it is no small wonder that there is so little language instruction available on the computers. The fact that computer-assisted instruction exists in Russian is slightly better than miraculous.

Computer terminals have been becoming increasingly flexible, thereby enabling the creation of a greater range of programs. For Russian, only those of the IBM-equivalent "selectric" type of terminals may be used, since they will accept a special selectric element with Cyrillic characters.[1] Most of the standard types suitable for Russian instruction are manufactured by IBM and Novar; newer terminals are lighter and more portable than earlier models. Screen terminals such as those developed by the University of Illinois (PLATO), with their ability to produce a text at one hundred times the speed of the teletype typewriter, are also available; at the moment, unfortunately, demand for the new terminals far exceeds supply. In the future, voice print analyzers can possibly be used to identify problems in pronunciation.

Multi-media equipment integrating tape recordings, records, and touch-panels will also be available within the next few years. The equipment available is frequently far in advance of the programs developed for its use.

Only a small number of universities offer computer-assisted instruction in Russian. Russian language computer programs are or have been offered at Stanford University, the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Dartmouth College, the University of Southern California at Los Angeles, Rutgers University, the State University of New York at Binghamton, the United States Naval Academy, and the University of Texas at Austin.

At Stanford University, Professor Joseph A. Van Campen designed a self-contained CBI (Computer-based instruction) program and implemented it as a separate course in the Slavic department during the academic year 1967-68.[2] The program consisted of both visual (teletype) and auditory stimuli; five computer-based sessions per week were scheduled. Written homework and language lab were also assigned, but these non-computerized assignments covered materials already introduced on the computer. While the number of students in the course was too small to draw any statistically valid conclusions, Van Campen observes that the students taking the course did well, and in most cases even better than their peers, in an equivalent non-computerized course. Due to the expense of computer time, Stanford no longer offers this course. A CBI course in the history of the Russian literary language, designed to follow Van Campen's Introduction to Old Church Slavonic and Early Russian texts, was offered at Stanford for the first time during the spring quarter of 1973.[3] CBI reading and grammar courses in Bulgarian are also available.

The University of Illinois offers a Russian reading course for upper-classmen and graduate students on its PLATO screen terminal system. This program, designed for the student who does not wish to learn to speak Russian but rather seeks access to the written language, has proven to save the student significant amounts of time over a classroom course. Through the flexibility of the PLATO system, the course presents various types of exercises, in varying degrees of difficulty, from identifying forms of grammar to writing complete sentences in English.[4] The University of Illinois' Slavic Department has also authored a computer-assisted instruction program for its first-year Russian course. This program is used in conjunction with classroom instruction and language lab.

The programs at the other universities are less ambitious in scope, but nevertheless represent the growing number of CAI programs available in Russian. At Dartmouth College, I supervised the creation of vocabulary exercises (English to Russian) as well as a number of multiple-choice and fill-in exercises to accompany

Galina Stilman, Leon Stilman, and William E. Harkins' Introductory Russian Grammar, first edition (1964) and Leon Stilman's Verbs of Motion (1961). In some of the exercises, the answers are analyzed by the computer and the student is informed of the area of his error.[5]

At the University of Southern California, Dr. Edward T. Purcell has authored an interactive drill sequence to permit first-year Russian students to do homework accompanying Ben T. Clark's Russian for Americans (1973). These drills, kept intentionally simple, employ Russian exclusively and contain page references on the printout to permit the student to refer to the textbook if necessary.[6]

At Rutgers University, Dr. Lewis Bernhardt has created a program to be used in the first-year remedial and reinforcement work. Lacking the facilities for auditory work, the Rutgers program concentrates primarily on English stimulus-Russian response and is able to analyze the student's errors.[7]

Dr. Hugh Olmstead, of the State University of New York at Binghamton, has currently developed programs on specific grammar topics (to date, the genitive plural and passive constructions), employing within the more complicated drills rules of the single-stem verb system.[8] Programs at the U.S. Naval Academy and the University of Texas are currently not in use. At all of the above schools, except the CBI project at Stanford and the Russian reading course at Illinois, the programs are intended to be integrated into the general teaching scheme of the course sequence along with language lab, outside films, and the like.[9] Progress in the area of program development is slow and painstaking. Programming requires a great deal of time--time that only too frequently universities are unwilling to allot their faculty for this purpose in spite of the fact that it would more than compensate for future savings in time and money.

The future of CAI programming in Russian is not certain. Despite the willingness of author/instructors to develop new programs, facilities for terminals are still difficult to construct, computers appear to break down at very inopportune moments, and many professors and students are still reluctant to entrust their teaching and learning to a machine. Nevertheless, as the technology is simplified, the temptation to employ the computer will be greater. In my opinion, screens will ultimately replace teletype terminals, since they function silently and with greater speed, and the time will come within the next twenty years when every student will have his own line into a computer.[10] Perhaps in 1995, today's efforts in computer-assisted instruction in Russian will be regarded as valiant pioneering achievements.

NOTES

1. A bi-alphabet element (IBM #1167045) may be particularly useful for instruction which uses both Russian and English. The characters are upper case only. For inventory numbers and other details, see Edward T. Purcell, "Computer-Controlled Drills for First-Year Russian," Slavic and East European Journal 18 (Spring 1974): 56-68.

2. The term CAI (computer-assisted instruction) usually refers to a course sequence in which the computer supplements already existing classroom instruction; CBI (computer-based instruction) means that the computer is the primary source of instruction. Joseph A. Van Campen, Project for Application of Mathematical Learning Theory to Second-Language Acquisition, with Particular Reference to Russian. Final Report (Stanford, California: Stanford University Community College Planning Center, 1968). ERIC ED 026 934.

3. Richard Schupach, Toward a Computer-Based Course in the History of the Russian Literary Language, (Stanford, California: Stanford University Institute for Mathematical Studies in Social Sciences, 1973). ERIC ED 096 818.

4. Constance Curtin, Douglas Clayton, Cheryl Finch, David Moor, and Lois Woodruff, "Teaching the Translation of Russian by Computer," Modern Language Journal (October 1972): 354-60.

5. George Kalbouss, "Computer-Assisted Instruction in the Teaching of Russian," Slavic and East European Journal 3 (1973): 315-21. Steven Toll and several other students wrote the programs.

6. Purcell, "Computer-Controlled Drills." This article provides an excellent presentation of how a student proceeds through a CAI drill.

7. Lewis Bernhardt, "Computer-Assisted Instruction in Russian Language Courses," Russian Language Journal (Fall 1973): 18-25.

8. Hugh Olmstead, "Two Models of Computer-Based Drill: Teaching Russian with APL," paper presented at the Soviet-American Conference on Russian Language Teaching, Amherst, Massachusetts, October 1974.

9. Kalbouss, "Computer-Assisted Instruction as a Teaching System," in Proceedings of the Banff Conference, Linguistics, ed. Thomas Magner, forthcoming.

10. This is already close to a reality at Dartmouth College.

JUNIOR-, SENIOR-, AND GRADUATE-LEVEL PROGRAMS, INCLUDING RUSSIAN LITERATURE

Maurice I. Levin, University of Massachusetts

Advanced Undergraduate Programs

In discussing advanced undergraduate and graduate offerings, it will be helpful to consider the most typical situations in which Russian is now being taught. There are perhaps three or four types of Russian programs that are commonly found in colleges and universities across the country. The first involves only one or two years of language instruction, usually offered in a department of foreign languages in a relatively small institution. The second pattern is exemplified by some three years of language instruction plus one or two survey courses on Russian literature (in translation) and/or civilization and culture. Often the third year of instruction is represented by a literature course with all or some of the work done in Russian; at other times there may be no language work beyond the intermediate level. Here, too, these courses are usually offered in a department of foreign languages, although occasionally they appear in a separate department of Russian.

In the first situation described above there is, of course, no opportunity for a Russian major. In the second situation, particularly in those departments which offer a fuller program of courses, an undergraduate major in Russian is possible. It is the third pattern, however, where the full undergraduate major is normally found. Here, in institutions of various sizes and in departments of foreign languages, Russian or Slavic languages and literatures, we find four (and occasionally more) years of language instruction in addition to a large selection of literature courses, both in translation and in Russian. We may also find, depending on size and other considerations, courses in area studies, culture and civilization, linguistics, and other Slavic languages and literatures. Since it is this third situation that is most relevant to any discussion of upper-level undergraduate and graduate offerings, a more detailed analysis of it follows.

As already noted, a full undergraduate major in Russian may be found in institutions of all sizes, from the smallest private college to the largest state university; however, the basic pattern of required courses for this major does not, in its essential

components, exhibit a great degree of variation. What does vary, of course, are the number and type of optional, additional, or related course offerings. This basic pattern generally has as its underlying assumption the notion that maximal proficiency in all four language skills is the key ingredient in any Russian major, and most programs offer no less than three, usually four (and occasionally more) years of language work, some of it very intensive in nature. The customary pattern is for the third year to consist of advanced grammar, selected readings, composition, and conversation. Language courses beyond that level usually include phonetics, stylistics, syntax, and word derivation as well as readings of both a literary and nonliterary nature.

Although the readings covered in these advanced language courses come from a wide variety of sources, the major aim in assigning them is usually language work (i.e., as the basis for conversation, compositions, stylistic analyses, grammar and syntax review, etc.); therefore, most programs require the student to complete one or more content courses devoted either to literature, linguistics, or Russian history, culture, and civilization. The number and scope of these additional courses is very often closely related to the size and quality of the Russian or Slavic department involved and to the presence or absence of a graduate program at that institution. In many respects this latter factor may be viewed as one of the crucial elements in characterizing the undergraduate Russian major program, and we may, therefore, divide our third category into two subtypes, depending on whether or not there is a graduate program present. In so doing, let us consider two hypothetical programs, one typical of a small college, the other of a large university.

The Small College Major

In the small college Russian major, the following pattern of offerings is most typical. After the student completes two years of language study (or its equivalent), he may be required to complete a third year of actual language study which consists, as already noted above, of advanced grammar, composition, conversation, and reading. Very often, however, most post-intermediate course work consists of literature courses of several types, some of them conducted in Russian, but often in English. Almost always present is the survey course of Russian and Soviet literature in translation, presented either as a one- or two-semester course. Besides this course, there are usually monograph courses on major figures (most often Tolstoj and Dostoevskij, occasionally Puškin, Gogol' or Čexov), genre courses, courses dealing with Russian intellectual history, and, most recently, courses devoted to Russian culture and civilization.

In some instances there is not a Russian (i.e., language and literature) major, but rather a major in Russian Studies or Soviet Studies, in which the student, instead of taking only courses in the Russian department, is required to cover a wider range of

offerings to include Russian/Soviet history, economics, political science, anthropology, and sociology. (This is not to say that the student in the Russian major does not take such courses; as a matter of fact, a fair number of programs demand or strongly recommend work in other areas, most often in history, as part of the requirements for the major.) In addition to the courses already noted, which tend to be offered on a regular basis, there may occasionally be special seminars for majors--the topic of which varies from year to year--as well as individual guided study such as honors thesis direction, tutorials, special problems, or directed readings.

The University Major

In the more extensive program typical of a university with a graduate department of Slavic languages and literatures, there are some significant differences from the Russian major in a small college; these are, however, differences of range rather than of content. One of the major differences is that the student is usually required to complete at least four years of actual language work. As with the college major, the student is expected to complete additional courses within the department, but the choice of courses from which he may select is usually broader than in the college. That is, aside from a selection of literature offerings similar to what was noted for the small college major, the student in a university program may also be able to select, for example, courses in the structure of Russian, Russian phonetics, and historical development of Russian as well as courses in other Slavic languages and literatures.

Another difference may be the typical class size, where at a university--at least in the first two years of language instruction--the classes tend to be much larger. At the more advanced levels the difference in class size may be less striking, with small classes generally found in both types of programs. As a general rule, however, one of the most important differences between the two types of programs is the greater degree of individual attention that the student in the small college is likely to get at all stages of his study and in almost every course except the literature survey. In the university program, as in the college program, there may also be opportunity for the student to pursue an area studies or civilization major, or, if he prefers, a Russian major in combination with area studies certification. For the student interested in area studies, the university again provides an opportunity for a wider range of courses and specializations than does the small college.

Graduate Programs

When we consider graduate programs, it is important to keep in mind that here our focus is decidedly more narrow than it was when considering undergraduate courses. While the number of institutions offering courses in Russian language and literature at the junior and senior levels may be counted in the hundreds, as can be seen in Table 1, there are not more than thirty universities in the United States that award the Ph.D. in Slavic or Russian, and perhaps an equal number that award only the M.A. degree. There is also a higher degree of uniformity found among the graduate programs than there is in the range of undergraduate programs, and thus a description of a typical graduate program is much more likely to be representative of all programs than are the descriptions of the undergraduate programs above.

It should also be noted that although our primary concern in this paper is with Russian, we need not be bothered by the fact that most of the departments concerned bear the designation "Department of Slavic Languages and Literatures," since a very large percent of the course work is devoted to Russian. For example, approximately 80-85 percent of the literature dissertations written between 1961 and 1972 dealt with Russian, with the remainder scattered among the other Slavic literatures. The preponderance of Russian in linguistics dissertations is notably less, approximating 60 percent; however, since the number of linguistics dissertations is less than half the figure for literature, the point is still valid that a major share of the attention in Slavic departments is devoted to Russian.

Almost without exception, work at the doctoral level is divided with regard to specialization in either literature or linguistics, and in several departments this is the case at the Master's level as well. For the most part, though, work at the Master's level encompasses courses in both areas, and the student completing the M.A. is expected to demonstrate a general familiarity with the major works of Russian literature as well as a sound knowledge of the structure and history of the Russian language.

The doctoral student with a specialization in Russian literature is expected to demonstrate, besides general competence in the whole body of Russian literature, special competence in a particular period or in folklore. Often he is expected to offer a second literature, usually one that is written in another Slavic language, and to demonstrate reading proficiency in that language. Sometimes in lieu of a second literature or in addition to it, the student may be required to offer a minor in Slavic linguistics or in folklore.

In some departments it is possible to offer a minor in one of the major European literatures (usually French or German) or in comparative literature. The doctoral student specializing in Slavic linguistics is usually expected to demonstrate competence in general and comparative Slavic linguistics, thorough knowledge of the history and structure

TABLE 1

U.S. INSTITUTIONS GRANTING GRADUATE DEGREES

IN RUSSIAN OR SLAVIC (1973-74)

Institution	Program Level
Arizona State University	M.A.
University of Arizona	M.A.
University of California at Berkeley	Ph.D.
University of California at Davis	M.A.
University of California at Los Angeles	Ph.D.
Monterey Institute of Foreign Studies	M.A.
San Diego State University	M.A.
San Francisco State College	M.A.
Southern California University	Ph.D.
Stanford University	Ph.D.
University of Colorado	Ph.D.
Yale University	Ph.D.
The American University	M.A.
George Washington University	M.A.
Georgetown University	Ph.D.
Florida State University	M.A.
University of Hawaii	M.A.
University of Chicago	Ph.D.
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	Ph.D.
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle	M.A.
Northwestern University	Ph.D.
Indiana University	Ph.D.
University of Notre Dame	M.A.
Purdue University	M.A.
University of Iowa	M.A.

Source: "Russian and Slavic Programs and Faculty in U.S. and Canadian Colleges (1973-74)" Russian Language Journal 27 (Fall 1973): 40-72.

University of Kansas	Ph.D.
Boston College	M.A.
Harvard University	Ph.D.
University of Massachusetts	M.A.
Smith College	M.A.
Michigan State University	Ph.D.
University of Michigan	Ph.D.
Wayne State University	M.A.
Columbia University	Ph.D.
Cornell University	Ph.D.
Fordham University	M.A.
Hofstra University	M.A.
New York University	Ph.D.
University of Rochester	Ph.D.
State University of New York at Albany	M.A.
State University of New York at Binghamton	M.A.
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	Ph.D.
The Ohio State University	Ph.D.
University of Oregon	M.A.
Bryn Mawr College	Ph.D.
Kutztown State College	M.A.
Penn State University	M.A.
University of Pennsylvania	Ph.D.
University of Pittsburgh	Ph.D.
Brown University	Ph.D.
University of Texas	Ph.D.
University of Utah	M.A.
Middlebury College	D.M.L.*
University of Virginia	Ph.D.
University of Washington	Ph.D.
University of Wisconsin at Madison	Ph.D.

*Doctor of Modern Languages

of a single Slavic language as well as the structure and development of one or two other Slavic languages, and to demonstrate reading proficiency in those languages. He may also be expected to attain a basic familiarity with the literature and/or folklore of his major Slavic language and some knowledge of the major literary works written in the other Slavic languages that he offers.

The Russian offerings of a typical graduate program include courses on Russian literature of various periods (Old Russian, medieval period, eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth centuries, the Symbolists, Soviet period); genre courses (folk literature, Russian folklore, prose or poetry of various periods, literary criticism, drama, short stories, novels, oral poetry); seminars or monograph courses devoted to a single major figure (Dostoevskij, Tolstoj, Puškin, Gogol', Čexov) or occasionally to two or three figures (Gončarov and Turgenev; Majakovskij, Esenin, Pasternak); and courses on language and linguistics (structure of Russian, historical phonology and morphology of Russian, Russian syntax, contrastive structure of Russian and English, comparative and historical Slavic linguistics).

At the undergraduate level, students generally satisfy their degree requirements almost exclusively in terms of a specific number of courses, a certain percentage of which are usually mandated. In some instances, for example in the case of students working for departmental or institutional honors, there may be final qualifying examinations and/or a senior or honors thesis. On the whole, however, it is primarily through the successful completion of an obligatory pattern of course work that students satisfy the requirements for an undergraduate Russian major.

At the graduate level there are, naturally, prerequisites established in terms of a certain number of course credits for both the M.A. and Ph.D. degrees (usually one to two years' residency for the former and at least two years for the latter). These requirements, however, are only preliminary to (1) a series of qualifying examinations (written and oral) on subject areas in which the student is obliged to demonstrate competence; (2) language proficiency examinations in the student's major and minor languages plus French and/or German; and (3) the successful completion and defense of a Ph.D. dissertation. Some departments require a Master's thesis, but this is not uniformly done.

Proficiency

A final area of discussion, which is central to the whole question of advanced undergraduate and graduate study of Russian, is to what extent our students are achieving proficiency in the language itself. There are several characteristic features of our present system of education that result in a curious mixture of success and failure in making it possible for our students to achieve maximal proficiency in all four language skills.

The first of these factors is that in many undergraduate programs not enough advanced language training is being provided. There should be a minimum of four years of language work required; even this amount is often not enough. Yet many programs call for very little of such work beyond the second or third year of study, concentrating instead on literature courses where no active command of Russian is needed.

A second factor is that even where adequate language course work is required, there is generally no real check on the level of achievement (through the use of a final qualifying proficiency examination, for example). Often it is only when our students enter a graduate program that they are first expected to demonstrate proficiency in Russian by means of an examination that is usually given to determine whether or not they need additional (remedial) language study. Paradoxically, although it is at the graduate level that they are asked to demonstrate proficiency in Russian, aside from assigned readings, our students find very little occasion to use Russian once they enter graduate programs.

This leads us to the third factor in our discussion of language proficiency, the rather odd circumstance whereby our students in their course work make much more active use of the Russian language at the undergraduate than at the graduate level. In one of the more fully developed undergraduate programs, a student in his junior and senior year may find that anywhere from 50 to 100 percent of the course work done within his department is conducted in Russian. In the major graduate programs, courses conducted in Russian are a relative rarity, occurring as a general rule only when the instructor is a native speaker of that language. It seems that more and more frequently, in their attempts to achieve a high degree of proficiency in Russian, our students find it useful or expedient to enroll in intensive summer programs in this country or to seek participation in overseas study programs in the Soviet Union.

RUSSIAN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS IN THE USSR FOR AMERICAN STUDENTS

Joseph L. Conrad, University of Kansas

American students may at present choose from a wide variety of Russian language programs available to them in the Soviet Union, ranging from the three-week study tours offered by Intourist and Sputnik to the longer summer and semester Cooperative Russian Language Program (CRLP) at Leningrad University.

Study of the language is more or less incidental to the first category. Students with one year or less of prior Russian study are encouraged to participate, and classes are usually held in resort areas (Dyuni, Sochi, Pyatigorsk, etc.) in the morning and are followed by touring in the afternoon. Some of the instructors are secondary school teachers; others are language instructors from technological institutes, e.g., Leningrad Polytechnic, or from Leningrad or Moscow Universities (when they are not teaching in programs sponsored by the university itself, e.g., the International Research and Exchanges Board (IREX) summer exchange of language teachers in Moscow or the CRLP in Leningrad).

The study tour programs, which are essentially commercial arrangements between Intourist/Sputnik and one or more American schools or colleges, are open to almost all students with the desire and the money to participate. The academic standards for participation vary with the particular institutions, as do the costs. These programs are often advertised in The Slavic and East European Journal and are regularly listed during the winter in AATSEEL's Newsletter and by a special bulletin from IREX; because of their widely differing levels of preparation and the large amount of tourism involved, it is often difficult for students in these programs to improve their Russian to a significant degree, but they usually return with great enthusiasm for further study.

The history of Russian language programs of longer duration and greater academic emphasis begins with the summer study tours to the USSR organized in 1959-60 by Indiana University and the University of Michigan and partially funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. These programs involved a period of intensive Russian language study of four to five weeks in Bloomington or Ann Arbor, followed by a three- to five-week tour of Moscow, Leningrad, and other cities of the USSR. Both on the home campus and during the tour, the students were obligated to speak only Russian, and in

the USSR they received daily from the American group leader one to two hours of language instruction. From 1963 through 1965, the Universities of Colorado and Kansas sponsored a similar summer program, also with generous support from the Carnegie Corporation. The Kansas-Colorado program consisted of a six-week intensive Russian language institute in Järvenpää, Finland (a small town populated largely by émigrés from the USSR), followed by a two-week tour of Leningrad and Moscow.

In 1965, The Ohio State University introduced a third variant, held during the spring quarter. This program, which is still in operation, combines four weeks of Russian study and an introduction to life in the USSR on the Columbus campus with a six-week tour of Leningrad, Moscow, Kiev, and Yalta. It also includes a two-week Russian language course offered by the Pyatigorsk Pedagogical Institute. The students are expected to speak only Russian, and they receive instruction not only from the American group leader but from teachers of the Pedagogical Institute.

Until Leningrad and Moscow Universities created programs especially for American and other foreign students, the Indiana, Kansas-Colorado, Michigan, and Ohio State study tours offered the only opportunity for American students to spend more than a few days in the USSR. Although these programs were important contributions to the training of American students in Russian, they have almost all been phased out: the Kansas-Colorado program ended in 1965, the Indiana and Michigan study tours in 1970.

A number of factors contributed to the demise of these early programs. The long-term study tours were expensive to organize and administer, and their cost was often more than many students could afford. But the reasons were not only financial. A major factor was the availability after 1965 of quality language programs conducted entirely in the USSR. In 1966 and 1967, Moscow and Leningrad Universities organized summer Russian language programs for American students which closely rivaled our domestic institutions in teaching efficiency. Moreover, they had the advantage of taking place in cities where Russian was the everyday language of communication. These factors, plus the availability of financial support for overseas study through NDEA Title VI, the Office of Education, and the Ford Foundation naturally led to students' seeking programs offered in their entirety on Soviet soil.

University-sponsored, non-tourist Russian language institutes in the USSR for American students have proliferated in recent years. These range from the University of Northern Iowa's four-week course for teachers and students of Russian held in Sochi each summer since 1968 (except 1975) and the summer program offered by Southern Illinois University (Carbondale)--which uses the teachers and facilities of the Leningrad Polytechnic Institute--to the more recent ventures advertised by the University of Maine (Orono) and the State University of New York at New Paltz.

The oldest, and the most comprehensive, language course is the Cooperative Russian Language Program (CRLP) held at Leningrad University each summer and during the fall and spring semesters. The CRLP is sponsored by a nineteen-member consortium[1] and administered by the Council on International Education Exchange (CIEE). CRLP is the result of many years of Soviet-American negotiations. The summer (eight-week) and semester (sixteen-week) programs are not only longer than the study tours mentioned above, but they are carefully coordinated academic programs under the direct supervision of CRLP consortium committees and the Leningrad University Department of Russian for Foreigners. Travel arrangements and other details of the programs are handled by CIEE in the U.S. and Sputnik in the USSR.

While every serious student of Russian language and area studies should have an opportunity to study in the USSR, the CRLP experience has demonstrated that two years of Russian on the college level is a minimum requirement for a student to benefit from such programs. Two years of college Russian provide some control over Russian phonology and morphology, bringing the student to the point where he can make the most rapid progress in an environment that demands that he use the language to express personal meaning. Moreover, after a few days, students with at least two years of Russian are generally able to overcome the shock of being in a completely Russian-speaking environment and can take full advantage of the opportunity.

Candidates for the CRLP Summer Russian Language Program at Leningrad University are recruited nationally, and applications are processed by five "core" schools: Dartmouth, Georgetown, Kansas, Michigan State/Minnesota, Washington at Seattle. They must have had a minimum of two years of Russian on the college level (approximately one-half have had more), and they must pass a screening examination which is graded at one institution. After careful consideration of the applicants' transcripts, letters of recommendation, physicians' reports, and test scores, selection for the summer programs is made by core school committees, and for the semester programs by a national selection committee. Enroute to the Soviet Union, the American faculty leaders give the students an orientation to Soviet life--academic and cultural--and a Russian placement examination. The students are tested again immediately upon arrival in Leningrad by members

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[1] City University of New York, Dartmouth College, Georgetown University, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Indiana University, University of Kansas, Michigan State University, Middlebury College, University of Minnesota, Oberlin College, Syracuse University, University of Washington, University of California, The Ohio State University, University of Pittsburgh, Princeton University, Stanford University, Tufts University, University of Virginia.

of the teaching staff there. As a result of these tests, the summer participants are divided into advanced, high intermediate, and low intermediate levels with eight to ten students in a class. The semester participants are similarly divided, but the class size is smaller (five-six students).

The summer course of instruction comprises three major aspects: phonetics (six hours weekly), conversation (ten hours), and grammar (eight hours); the semester program includes phonetics (six hours) and conversation (eight hours) as well as advanced composition and syntax (four hours), translation (two hours), and Russian literature (six hours). Students also receive weekly lectures on life in the Soviet Union, e.g., history, economics, education, public health, law. Instruction is conducted exclusively in Russian. There are also films, and excursions to places of interest in and around Leningrad. Since 1966, the first year of the program, approximately 1300 American students have participated in the summer course, and about 300 have taken part in the fall-spring semester programs begun in 1970.

Students attend formal classes six mornings a week for the duration of the program; their instructors, Leningrad University faculty members, are specialists in teaching Russian to foreigners, and many have several years' experience in the CRLP. Phonetics, conversation, and grammar are taught by three individual instructors. The Leningrad instructors, like their Moscow University counterparts, have developed textbooks and other materials for instruction, and these are used regularly in the classes. The students' evaluations have repeatedly commended the phonetics instructors for their professionalism; since work on Russian phonetics in American institutions is generally rare beyond the first-year course, the students find this aspect of the program particularly helpful.

The conversation classes make use of booklets on topics such as those found in Khavronina's Russian As We Speak It, e.g., Theater, Cinema, An Apartment, City Transportation, etc. Exercises in the booklets reinforce the students' learning of new vocabulary. Grammar lessons include exercises on sentence structure, verbal aspect, motion verbs, adjectives and adverbs, etc., as well as compositions assigned as homework and discussed the next day. The semester program translation and literature classes further strengthen the students' understanding of Russian syntax and introduce them to the shorter classics of Russian and Soviet literature.

An important aspect of the learning experience is that students are housed in a Leningrad University dormitory (as opposed to living in a tourist hotel), and there is at least one Russian student roommate per room. As a result, the American students have some access to non-tourist life in the USSR (though it would not be completely accurate to claim that their activities are not somewhat structured by the Soviet authorities or that the American students

could participate fully in Soviet student life). While the physical facilities of the dormitory are less convenient than those of a typical dormitory in the United States, the students adapt remarkably well, and complaints are few after the first week of the programs.

In conjunction with the academic portion of the program, there are weekend excursions (Tallin, Novgorod, Pskov, for example) and a two-week tour of other parts of the Soviet Union, generally Moscow, Kiev, and a southern city (usually Tbilisi or Erevan). The purpose of these excursions is to better acquaint the students with various peoples and cultural monuments in the European and Caucasian portions of the USSR.

Upon completion of the program in the USSR, the students are flown to Vienna (summer) or Paris (semester) for an evaluation of their experience. The evaluation program includes an examination of their progress in Russian and a consideration of their experiences through question-and-answer sessions as well as assigned topics for discussion.

There has been a carefully coordinated effort to develop and improve the programs over the years. The Cooperative Russian Language Program consortium committee meets in the fall of each year to discuss the students' assessment of the language and cultural programs and to recommend improvements or changes to be negotiated with the Leningrad University and/or Sputnik officials. The Cooperative Russian Language Program currently represents the major and most academically sound Russian language learning opportunity available to American students in the USSR.

Two other programs for American students are currently in the formative stages. The State University of New York recently negotiated a semester program; the first group of ten students spent the fall 1974 term at the Moscow Institute of Foreign Languages. No details on the success of the program are available as yet. On behalf of the newly formed American Council of Teachers of Russian, a semester program for American graduate students who plan to become teachers of Russian is being negotiated at present by Dan Davidson of Amherst College with V. G. Kostomarov of the A. S. Pushkin Institute of Russian in Moscow.

The programs available today give the students a wide variety of choices. Generally speaking, however, sutdents who are well prepared linguistically and emotionally, i.e., have at least two years of college Russian as well as considerable maturity, will benefit far more from a longer program than from one of the two- or three-week courses. The cost is higher ($2200-$3000 as compared with $1000-$1800), but the gain in language and cultural experience is well worth the greater expense of the longer programs. Regrettably, not many students of Russian can afford to participate in these programs without financial assistance. We must seek a considerable increase in fellowship support; in this way, all of our best students will be able to participate in such programs.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In the first section of this survey, Richard Brod examines Russian enrollments over the last fifteen years in the broad context of foreign language study in the United States. Brod suggests reasons for the relatively small number who study Russian and for the generally marginal status of Russian in schools and colleges. He notes the paradox that although there is a certain amount of unemployment among those recently completing their training in Russian, there are often not enough teachers available to provide replacements or to institute Russian language study on a widespread, continuing basis. There is obviously a need for better communication and closer coordination among the members of our profession.

After considering recent trends in the teaching of Russian in secondary schools, Gerard Ervin offers by example a detailed analysis of Russian language instruction in Ohio high schools. He discusses reasons for the growth or decline of programs in the schools and describes teachers' efforts to stimulate Russian language study. In addition to examining some of the textbooks and other materials now available, Ervin identifies the supplementary materials that teachers consider inadequate. Ervin makes concrete suggestions for reversing the downward trend in secondary school Russian enrollments, and he stresses the need for cooperation between high school and college Russian teachers. It seems clear that his suggestions must be given serious consideration if we are to make the teaching of Russian an important component of secondary education in the U.S. High school and college Russian teachers can no longer afford to hold the somewhat disdainful attitudes they have displayed toward one another in the past.

In a comprehensive overview of methodology and Russian language textbooks, Donald Jarvis compares the various "traditional" approaches to teaching Russian during the first two years of college-level instruction; he discusses the most widely used textbooks and such innovative methods as computer-assisted instruction, speech delay, individualized instruction, decoding, and the so-called "Lipson technique." Jarvis strongly believes that the Russian teaching profession should direct greater attention to methodology and to the development of materials more suitable for use on the secondary and higher levels--materials relating not only to literature, but to other aspects of Russian culture as well. As he has stated, Russian language and literature specialists have too often neglected the subject of teaching methods and have instead concentrated on research that may be valuable in itself, but that often makes no contribution to the improvement of basic language courses. Without improvement of our methodology and materials, we may well ensure our profession's marginal status in the field of foreign language teaching.

Robert Lager describes the principles underlying intensive language courses and the step-by-step goals that such courses presuppose. As an example, he offers a detailed description of the Georgetown University intensive Russian language program, which has been highly successful in achieving its goals. Georgetown's School of Languages and Linguistics has a special advantage over the usual university language program in that the students take only courses related to their major subject, the foreign language. Thus, students, as well as teachers, are free to concentrate on the language full time from the freshman through the senior year. While the rather unique situation at Georgetown (and the various language schools of the U.S. government) cannot be duplicated in a liberal arts college or university, we can learn much from the carefully coordinated intensive language program available there. Individual courses must be made far more interdependent and mutually reinforcing than is normally the case in our language programs.

The advantages and disadvantages of computer-based techniques for Russian language instruction are discussed by George Kalbouss. He points out that, despite the enormous costs involved, the programs currently available have proven to be valuable aids in the instruction of certain areas of Russian, especially vocabulary building. Kalbouss predicts that computer-based instruction will be widespread within twenty years.

Maurice Levin surveys undergraduate and graduate programs for Russian language majors by discussing those offered by the typical small college and university. He describes the requirements and offerings of each type of program on the undergraduate level and outlines M.A. and Ph.D. programs in Slavic languages and literatures. After providing a general view of such programs in the U.S. today, Levin calls attention to a widespread major deficiency. It should be of particular concern to the profession, he states, that there is often an unfortunate deemphasis of the use of spoken and written Russian after the third- or fourth-year courses; he strongly recommends that more courses be taught in Russian at the higher levels of instruction and that students be required to use their knowledge of Russian in an active fashion.

The last section of this series discusses Russian language programs in the USSR that are currently available to American students. These range from the relatively brief, three-week mini-courses established by Intourist or Sputnik for individual American colleges, to the longer, more demanding summer or semester programs known as the Cooperative Russian Language Program, under the direction of Leningrad University's Department of Russian for Foreigners and supervised by the nineteen-member consortium of American colleges and universities and the Council on International Educational Exchange. The continuity established over several years of cooperation between the consortium committee and Leningrad University has created a solid professional language program, one comparable to those offered by the well-known programs in the United States. It

is to be hoped that the future will bring expanded opportunities of this nature; in this way, the cause of mutual understanding and détente will be served to a significant degree.

The studies presented here provide an overview of (1) the trends in enrollment in the context of foreign language education in the U.S. today, (2) the current methodology and text materials used in Russian language instruction, and (3) opportunities for study of Russian in the USSR. In all three areas we have accomplished much. Our successes have been notable, yet we may have reached a plateau. Our enrollments are not significantly down when viewed in the context of percentage enrollment drops in other foreign languages, but we cannot claim to have established Russian as an indispensable subject as far as students and school administrators are concerned. We must do more to convince our potential clientele of the need for Russian study and of the rewards of working in the field. To accomplish this, we will have to begin by improving our textbooks and by developing better teacher-training programs. The methods and texts in use today are the same ones that have dominated the field for the last decade; with the exception of computer-assisted instruction, very little that is truly new has been introduced.

While the value of participation in a USSR-based Russian program of several weeks in duration is undeniable, the high cost of such programs sometimes eliminates from participation those who would benefit the most. If we are to continue to develop and improve the training of our students--and hence expand our supply of experts in fields including and/or related to Russian studies--we will have to find additional sources of support.

Given increasing commercial activities between the U.S. and the USSR, it could seem that industry and the legal profession should have a greater interest in the Russian language field. But more receptivity toward fields outside the humanities will be necessary on our part as well; we must adapt our Russian language programs to meet the needs of today. By doing so, we will not only strengthen our profession, but we will better serve the larger goals of education and our society as a whole.

We must make our Russian language programs more interesting and ultimately useful to our students in their preparation for a variety of occupations; otherwise, our problems are likely to remain with us. We must make our field more attractive to the business community; finally, we must convince the general public of the desirability of knowledge about Russia and the Soviet Union, whether for commercial, scientific, or humanistic reasons.

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The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages or the National Institute of Education.

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